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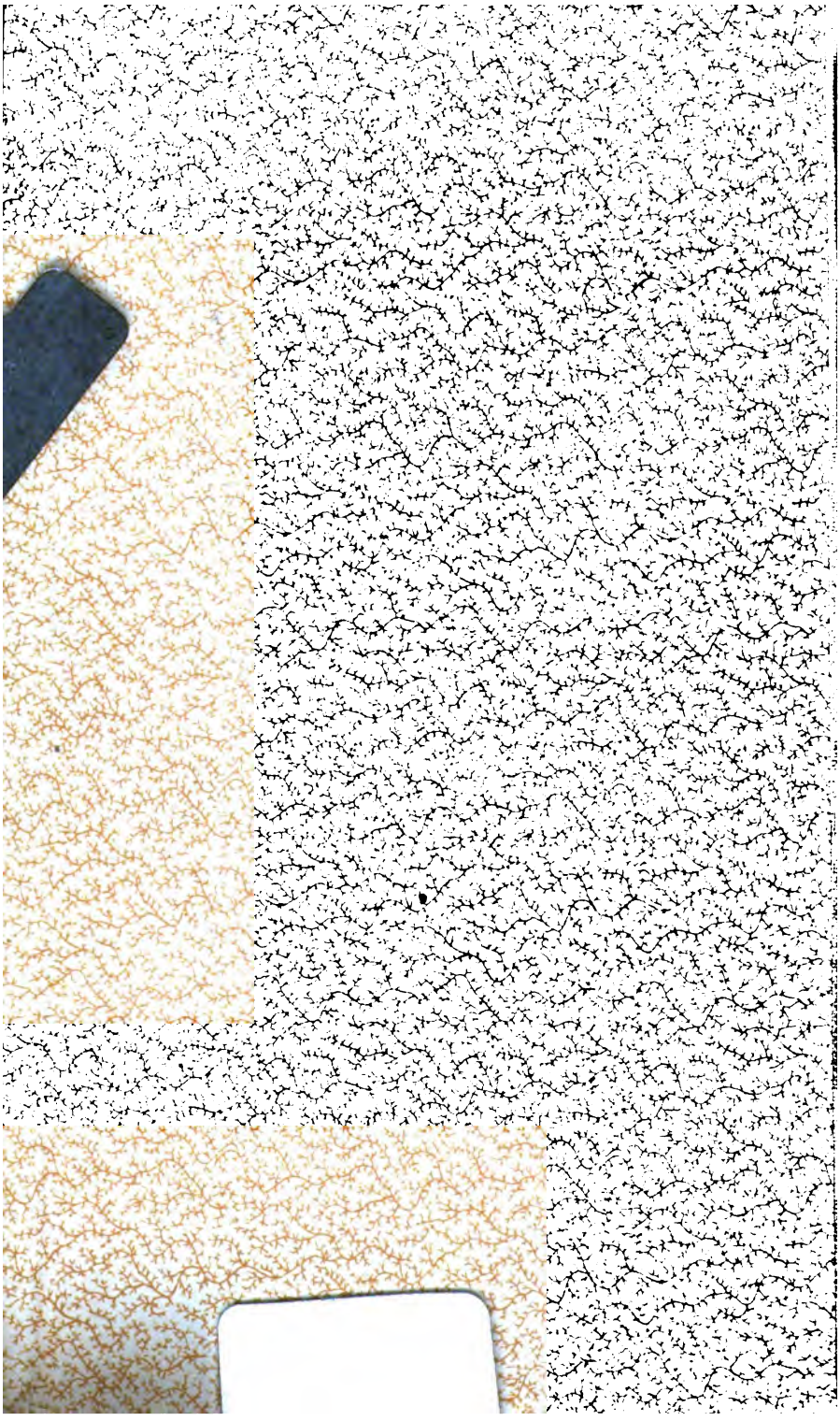

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THE

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"*Stulta est clementia* ——
—— —— *perituræ parcere chartæ.*" JUVENAL.

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ERRATA in this Volume.

Page 12. l. 2. for 'black,' r. *bleak.*
— l. 4. from bott. for 'dwindled,' r. *dwindling.*
16. l. 28. after 'and,' insert *age.*
104. l. 9. transpose 'only,' and place it after '*add.*'
105. l. 25. for 'works,' read *productions.*
157. l. 10. for 'neither,' read *either.*
185. l. 24. for 'comparative of the charges,' r. *of the comparative charges.*
210. l. 12. from bott. for 'Juvenal,' r. *Juvenile.*
235. l. 25. for 'Bolls,' r. *Bull*, with a comma after it.
318. the price of Art. 16. should be 2s. 6d.
368. l. 9. dele the semicolon after '*understand.*'
377. l. 20. dele '*a* before '*satisfactory.*'
441. l. 7. take the comma from 'which,' and place it after '*evils.*'
443. l. 7. dele the *s* in *Boileaux.*
—— l. 8. from bott. put a comma after *Hooper.*

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JANUARY, 1803.

ART. I. *The Satires of Decimus Junius Juvenalis*, translated into English Verse. By William Gifford, Esq. With Notes and Illustrations. 4to. pp. 553. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Nicol. 1802.

THE powers of Juvenal as a satirist, and his excellencies as a poet, have long been the theme of the scholar, the man of taste, and the lover of virtue. They often excited *our* admiration in our younger days, and have frequently called forth the applause of our maturer judgment, in the critical functions of our later years. Many of our contemporaries have endeavoured to transfuse his castigations and his admonitions into modern language, with various and not unalloyed success; and we have now to appreciate a new attempt of this nature, not trifling in its pretensions nor impotent in its support of them.

Before, however, we proceed to discuss Mr. Gifford's merit as a translator, we are invited to pay our compliments to him as a man;—a duty from the performance of which we receive the most ample satisfaction. Passing over, with dignified silence, the real motive which perhaps induced him to detail the particulars of his life, Mr. G. has introduced this volume by a memoir of himself; which is written with so much ability and unaffected modesty, with so much ingenuousness and manly feeling, that it must secure to him universal regard and esteem. He may say, with the admired author whom he translates, *Stemmata quid faciunt?* for he possesses what ancestry cannot bequeath, great talents and a noble mind; and while, without reserve, he discloses the obscurity of his origin, his struggles with poverty in the lowest situations, and his progress in mental improvement under the most sickening discouragements, he increases our respect for him, and prepares us to rejoice in those propitious circumstances which favoured the expansion of his mind, fostered his love of science, and raised him to a state of independence. Of such a life as that of Mr.

Gifford, no man who thinks and feels like a man will be ashamed. Fools may be mortified at the recollection of the penury of their youth and the mean condition of their family: but great and enlightened minds, despising the idle notions of the vain and the proud, will consider superior and cultivated talents as incapable of sustaining any degradation, except by vicious misuse of them; and as conferring a nobility on the possessor, which "not all the blood of all the Howards," nor the circumstance of being "stuck o'er with titles and hung round with strings," can, in the eye of reason, ever bestow. We have often been disgusted with men who, after having risen to eminence by their splendid endowments and meritorious efforts, have been studious to conceal the poverty of their early condition; as if this poverty were both a degradation and a crime. Mr. Gifford has administered to such persons a very suitable reproof; and he has set an example which the wise and the virtuous will applaud.

Mr. G. informs us that he was born at Ashburton in Devonshire in April 1757; that his father was a glazier and house-painter, and his mother the daughter of a carpenter; and that, when eight years old, he was put to the free-school, to learn to read, write, and cypher; where he continued about three years, making a wretched progress, when his father died, in consequence of his love of liquor. Of this parent he speaks with little affection, and with no respect; it was impossible that he should feel any: but he mentions his mother, who in less than a twelvemonth followed her husband to the grave, as an excellent woman, who bore his infirmities with patience, and dearly loved her children. On this event, his little brother was conveyed to the almshouse; and Mr. G., not then thirteen years old, was taken to the house of his godfather, who for a little time sent him to school: but who soon endeavoured to rid himself of him, first by endeavouring to engage him to a farmer to perform the drudgery of husbandry, and then by putting him on board a coaster as a cabin boy. His condition now seemed to be fixed: but an event, which had nearly extinguished his life, changed its future destiny. Here Mr. G. shall speak for himself:

'I was not negligent in seeking such information as promised to be useful; and I therefore frequented, at my leisure hours, such vessels as dropped into Torbay. On attempting to get on board one of these, which I did at midnight, I missed my footing, and fell into the sea. The floating away of the boat alarmed the man on deck, who came to the ship's side just in time to see me sink. He immediately threw out several ropes, one of which providentially (for I was unconscious of it) intangled itself about me, and I was drawn up

up to the surface, till a boat could be got round. The usual methods were taken to recover me, and I awoke in bed the next morning, remembering nothing but the horror I felt, when I first found myself unable to cry out for assistance.

'This was not my only escape, but I forbear to speak of them. An escape of another kind was now preparing for me, which deserves all my notice, as it was decisive of my future fate.

'On Christmas day (1770) I was surprised by a message from my godfather, saying that he had sent a man and horse to bring me to Ashburton; and desiring me to set out without delay. My master, as well as myself, supposed it was to spend the holidays there; and he therefore made no objection to my going. We were, however, both mistaken.

'Since I had lived at Brixham, I had broken off all connection with Ashburton. I had no relation there but my poor brother, who was yet too young for any kind of correspondence; and the conduct of my godfather towards me did not intitle him to any portion of my gratitude, or kind remembrance. I lived therefore in a sort of sullen independance on all I had formerly known, and thought without regret of being abandoned by every one to my fate. But I had not been overlooked. The women of Brixham, who travelled to Ashburton twice a week with fish, and who had known my parents, did not see me without kind concern, running about the beach in a ragged jacket and trowzers. They mentioned this to the people of Ashburton, and never without commiserating my change of condition. This tale often repeated, awakened at length the pity of their auditors, and, as the next step, their resentment against the man who had reduced me to such a state of wretchedness. In a large town, this would have had little effect, but in a place like Ashburton, where every report speedily becomes the common property of all the inhabitants, it raised a murmur which my godfather found himself either unable or unwilling to withstand: he therefore determined, as I have just observed, to recall me; which he could easily do, as I wanted some months of fourteen, and consequently was not yet bound.

'All this I learned on my arrival; and my heart, which had been cruelly shut up, now opened to kinder sentiments, and fairer views.

'After the holidays I returned to my darling pursuit, arithmetic; my progress was now so rapid, that in a few months I was at the head of the school, and qualified to assist my master (Mr. E. Furlong) on any extraordinary emergency. As he usually gave me a trifle on those occasions, it raised a thought in me, that by engaging with him as a regular assistant, and undertaking the instruction of a few evening scholars, I might, with a little additional aid, be enabled to support myself. God knows, my ideas of support at this time were of no very extravagant nature. I had, besides, another object in view. Mr. Hugh Smerdon (my first master) was now grown old and infirm; it seemed unlikely that he should hold out above three or four years; and I fondly flattered myself that, notwithstanding my youth, I might possibly be appointed to succeed

him. I was in my fifteenth year, when I built these castles: a storm, however, was collecting, which unexpectedly burst upon me, and swept them all away.

'On mentioning my little plan to C——, he treated it with the utmost contempt; and told me, in his turn, that as I had learned enough, and more than enough, at school, he must be considered as having fairly discharged his duty (so, indeed, he had;) he added, that he had been negotiating with his cousin, a shoe-maker, of some respectability; who had liberally agreed to take me without a fee, as an apprentice. I was so shocked at this intelligence, that I did not remonstrate; but went in sullenness and silence to my new master, to whom I was soon after bound *, till I should attain the age of twenty-one.

'The family consisted of four journeymen, two sons about my own age, and an apprentice somewhat older. In these there was nothing remarkable; but my master himself was the strangest creature! He was a Presbyterian, whose reading was entirely confined to the small tracts published on the Exeter Controversy. As these (at least his portion of them) were all on one side, he entertained no doubt of their infallibility, and being noisy and disputatious, was sure to silence his opponents; and became, in consequence of it, intolerably arrogant and conceited. He was not, however, indebted solely to his knowledge of the subject for his triumph: he was possessed of Fenning's Dictionary, and he made a most singular use of it. His custom was to fix on any word in common use, and then to get by heart the synonym, or periphrasis by which it was explained in the book; this he constantly substituted for the other, and as his opponents were commonly ignorant of his meaning, his victory was complete.

'With such a man I was not likely to add much to my stock of knowledge, small as it was; and, indeed, nothing could well be smaller. At this period, I had read nothing but a black letter romance called Parismus and Parismenus, and a few loose magazines which my mother had brought from South Molton. The Bible, indeed, I was well acquainted with; it was the favourite study of my grandmother, and reading it frequently with her had impressed it strongly on my mind; these then, with the Imitation of Thomas à Kempis, which I used to read to my mother on her death-bed, constituted the whole of my literary acquisitions.

'As I hated my new profession with a perfect hatred, I made no progress in it; and was consequently little regarded in the family, of which I sunk by degrees into the common drudge: this did not much disquiet me, for my spirits were now humbled. I did not however quite resign the hope of one day succeeding to Mr. Hugh Smerdon, and therefore secretly prosecuted my favourite study, at every interval of leisure.

'These intervals were not very frequent; and when the use I made of them was found out, they were rendered still less so. I

* 'My indenture, which now lies before me, is dated the 1st of January, 1772.'

could

could not guess the motives for this at first; but at length I discovered that my master destined his youngest son for the situation to which I aspired.

'I possessed at this time but one book in the world: it was a treatise on Algebra, given to me by a young woman, who had found it in a lodging-house. I considered it as a treasure; but it was a treasure locked up: for it supposed the reader to be well acquainted with simple equation, and I knew nothing of the matter. My master's son had purchased Fenning's Introduction: this was precisely what I wanted, but he carefully concealed it from me, and I was indebted to chance alone for stumbling upon his hiding-place. I sat up for the greatest part of several nights successively, and, before he suspected that his treatise was discovered, had completely mastered it. I could now enter upon my own; and that carried me pretty far into the science.

'This was not done without difficulty. I had not a farthing on earth, nor a friend to give me one: pen, ink, and paper, therefore, (in despite of the flippant remark of Lord Orford,) were, for the most part, as completely out of my reach, as a crown and sceptre. There was indeed a resource; but the utmost caution and secrecy were necessary in applying to it. I beat out pieces of leather as smooth as possible, and wrought my problems on them with a blunted awl: for the rest, my memory was tenacious, and I could multiply and divide by it, to a great extent.'

Though mathematics constituted Mr. G.'s favourite pursuit, he made some attempts at rhime; and with the trifling pecuniary rewards which he obtained for his verses, in addition to empty praise, he purchased paper, &c. and books of geometry and algebra. The love of science, however, having rendered him negligent of his master's concerns, he naturally fell under his displeasure; and, on refusing to give up his papers, his garret was searched, and his literary treasure taken from him. By this misfortune, he was thrown into a state of melancholy, in which he endeavoured to relieve himself with the hope that, at the end of his apprenticeship, (which was drawing to a conclusion,) he should be able to open a private school, and for ever throw aside an employment which he detested. On a sudden, the horizon began to brighten beyond his gayest hopes. Mr. Cookesley, the surgeon of the place, found him out in his twentieth year, in this state of obscurity and extreme poverty; and, by the help of a subscription, he purchased the remainder of the time which he had to serve, and enabled him to pursue his studies under the Rev. Mr. Smerdon. With this preceptor, when the whole vigour of his mind was directed without check or incumbrance to the acquisition of knowlege, he made so rapid a progress, that in two years and two months he was pronounced to be fit for the University; and through the exertions and generosity of his valuable friend Mr. Cookes-

ley, he obtained a situation in Exeter College, Oxford. Mr. G.'s attention had been directed by his tutor to the satires of Juvenal, the 10th of which he had translated for a holiday task; at the University, he employed himself in attempting other Satires; and he was advised by his Mæcenas, Mr. Cookesley, to open a subscription for a complete version of all the Satires of Juvenal. Proposals were accordingly issued in January 1781: but the sudden death of his friend, soon afterward, plunged him into such affliction as to interrupt his studies; and on regaining the tranquillity of his mind, he was mortified by the discovery of his incompetency for the task which the partiality of Mr. C., united with his own wants, had tempted him to undertake. His first resolution, therefore, was to renounce the publication for the present, and to return the subscriptions. This was done in part, but it could not be effected entirely; and hence Mr. G. considered himself as still pledged to give a translation: hoping that, in a country residence, in the course of two years, his design might be fulfilled. About this time, however, a trivial circumstance opened to him unexpected prospects, and changed the system of his life. Corresponding with a friend, to whom he addressed his letters under cover to the late Lord Grosvenor, and one day inadvertently omitting the direction on the inclosure, his Lordship opened and read the letter, supposing it to have been intended for himself. Its contents interested him so much that he wished to see the writer; and on the simple exposure of his humble circumstances, the Earl generously undertook his present support and future establishment; inviting Mr. G. to reside with him till his wishes could be accomplished. This was a request not to be resisted. 'I did go,' says Mr. G. 'and reside with him;' and, to the honour of his patron, he adds, 'I experienced a warm and cordial reception, a kind and affectionate esteem, that has known neither diminution nor interruption from that hour to this, a period of twenty years!'

In the house of this nobleman, Mr. Gifford occasionally proceeded with Juvenal: but two successive tours on the continent with the Earl's son Lord Belgrave (now Earl Grosvenor) interrupted the work; and on his return to his own country in circumstances of happy competence, though his translation was not forgotten, he could have wished to decline the publication of it. Feeling, however, that there were people who had just and forcible claims on him for the due performance of his engagement, he persisted in the completion of his work; and he now offers it to the public in a matured and improved state.

Mr

Mr. Gifford's subscribers will be amply recompensed in two ways, first in the satisfaction which they must feel at having lent their assistance to rising genius, and secondly in receiving a translation far superior to their highest expectations. To account for the long space which has intervened between the original promise and its fulfilment, is the sole reason assigned by Mr. G. for becoming his own biographer:—if there were any other motive, which the reader of party effusions may conjecture, we forbear to comment. After this exhibition of the particulars of his life, all must rejoice that Mr. Gifford has risen, because they must admit that he deserved to rise. We have already observed that he is to be respected for having cultivated his talents under more than ordinary difficulties; and we could now almost tempt him to be vain, by addressing him in the words of his author;

——"*altaque si te*
Nomina delectent, omnem Titanida pugnam
Inter majores, ipsumque Promethea ponas:
De quocunque voles proavum tibi sumito libro."

We proceed to compliments of another kind.

The Translation before us is preceded by a Life of Juvenal, and by an Essay on the Roman Satirists. In the former, Mr. G. does not attempt to give us an idea of Juvenal's person and features by exhibiting, as Holyday did, at the head of his preface, a portraiture of him; nor does he undertake to substitute facts in the place of conjecture: but he endeavours to give such an account of the author as shall bear the stamp of probability. Juvenal is generally said by his biographers to have been banished by Domitian, as a 'facetious' kind of punishment, into Egypt, when eighty years old, for having satirized *Paris* the actor, a minion of the Emperor. The accuracy of this account, however, Mr. G. calls in question. To the observation that 'Domitian's was not a facetious reign,' he subjoins his reasons for doubting whether this banishment, which must have resulted from the tyrant having been in a very merry mood, ever took place. It is admitted that Juvenal was in Egypt, but it is evident that he was never long absent from Rome, where all his Satires were written. 'In 95, when Juvenal was in his 54th year, Domitian banished the philosophers from Rome, and soon after from Italy; and, though Juvenal did not (strictly speaking) come under the description of a philosopher, he might reasonably entertain apprehensions of his safety, and, with many other persons eminent for learning and virtue, judge it prudent to withdraw from the city.' To this period Mr. G. assigns the journey into Egypt: two years

after which, the world having been happily relieved from the yoke of Domitian, Nerva his successor recalled the exiles; and from this time there is little doubt that Juvenal was at Rome, where he continued his studies in tranquillity.

Mr. Gifford offers substantial reasons, which are indeed strenghtened by the nerve and vigour of Juvenal's style, for discrediting the common opinion, that any part of his works was produced when he was trembling on the verge of 90.

It is known that the present order of the Satires is not that in which they were written; and the translator despairs of their ever being chronologically arranged. He conceives, however, that the 8th was Juvenal's first effort; that the 2d, 3d, 5th, 6th, 7th, and perhaps the 13th Satires were written during Domitian's reign; and that the eleventh closed his poetical career, since there he thus speaks of himself as an old man:

"*Nostra bibat vernum contracta cuticula solem.*"

Beyond this, all is conjecture.

In the Essay on the Roman Satirists, Mr. G. represents the subject as in a manner exhausted, and offers himself to his readers in the humble character of a compiler: but, while he aspires at no higher merit than that of exhibiting with candour and truth the sentiments of his predecessors, he manifests so much taste and discrimination, and exhibits the whole with so much correctness and elegance, that he amply rewards us for leading us over ground repeatedly trodden.

Of Dryden's long dedication to the Earl of Dorset, in which this subject is discussed with great ease and pleasantry, due notice is taken; and Mr. G. coincides with him (who followed Casaubon) in deriving the word Satire, or Satura, from *satur*, *full*; the word *lanx*, a charger, or platter, in which all sorts of fruits were offered to the Gods, being understood: so that the term signified, when applied to a poem, a composition full of various matters or various subjects. He soon, however, turns to better critics than Dryden, who was sometimes superficial as well as fulsome *. To Dusaulx and to Rupert, the latter of whom has given an ingenious and learned Essay *De diversa Satirarum Lucil. Horat. Pers. et Juvenalis Indole*, he acknowleges himself to have been particularly indebted, for the able manner in which they have appreciated the respective merits of the Roman Satirists; and with their assistance he en-

* How could the Earl of Dorset tolerate the inordinate, we might say impious, adulation of Dryden? who, in complimenting his Lordship's talents for verse, says, "We cannot subsist intirely without your writing, any more (I may almost say) than the world without the daily course of ordinary Providence."

deavours

deavours to give a more extended view of the characteristic excellence and defects of the rival Bards, than has hitherto appeared in our language. Respecting the character of *Horace* as a satirist, there is no ground for debate: *circum præcordia ludit*; and, according to Mr. G., he must have been the *enfant gâté* in the palace of Augustus *. Dryden says of *Persius*, that "what he taught may be taught from the pulpit;" and the present Essayist admits that 'he mistook his talent when he applied to Satire;' yet "the trouble of finding out a meaning," which Holyday imputes to him, is said to be not so great as is usually represented; and to rebut Dryden's severe censure of "his scabrous and hobbling verse," it is contended that 'Persius has many exquisite passages, which nothing in Horace will be found to equal or approach.' His favourite author is thus described by Mr. G.;

'Juvenal, like Persius, professes to follow Lucilius; but what was in one a simple attempt, is in the other a real imitation, of his manner †. Fluent and witty as Horace, grave and sublime as Persius; of a more decided character than the former, better acquainted with mankind than the latter; he did not confine himself to the mode of regulating an intercourse with the great, or to abstract disquisitions on the nature of scholastic liberty; but, disregarding the claims of a vain urbanity, and fixing all his soul on the eternal distinctions of moral good and evil, he laboured, with a magnificence of language peculiar to himself, to set forth the loveliness of virtue, and the deformity and horror of vice, in full and perfect display.'

As Juvenal witnessed the cruel enormities of the monster Domitian, (who was truly πηλον αιματι πεφυραμενον, a lump of clay kneaded up with blood,) and lived in a period at which (as he observes) *omne in præcipiti vitium stetit*, we can easily account for his energetic indignation against vice; yet it is often expressed with a coarseness which we lament, and which would mark his satires as the compositions of an old man, in whose mind the feelings of delicacy had been obliterated by the long observance of profligate example, were not similar indecencies to be found in other writers of his age and country. Having drawn his sword, and proclaimed an irreconcileable enmity against vice, it would have been repulsive to his feelings to

* Full justice is done to Horace as a most excellent critic. In taste, he surpasses Juvenal.

† I believe that Juvenal meant to describe himself in the following spirited picture of Lucilius:

"Ense velut stricto quoties Lucilius ardens
Infremuit, rubet auditor, cui frigida mens est
Criminibus, tacita sudant præcordia culpa."

have

have employed the light weapons of ridicule in this serious warfare. His object was to make vice loathsome: but his indignation was not always governed by prudence. Holyday laments that he was not a Christian; thinking that, had he been a professor of this pure religion, he would have considered his pen as defiled by the full description of those vile actions which the corrupt Romans performed in secret. Though he is to be admired generally as a warm champion for virtue, his morality is sometimes objectionable. In more instances than one, as Mr. G. admits, he confounds the nature of crimes; and in the advice which he gives in the beginning of the 6th Satire, his detestation of that unnatural passion, which in other places he stigmatizes with such commendable severity, seems to desert him. While, however, we congratulate ourselves that, by means of the Christian revelation, we have obtained more correct views of the nature of virtue and vice; we must admit that, if Juvenal was sometimes gross and sometimes missed his aim, his object was always meritorious, and that as a moral instructor he stands distinguished in the Heathen world.

In the Translation before us, the Roman Satirist appears with great advantage. Mr. Gifford has caught the spirit and the style of his author; and he has in general accomplished his endeavour, which was to make Juvenal speak as he would probably have spoken if he had lived among us. Excepting Dr. Johnson's admirable imitations of the 3d and 10th Satires, we know not any prior version in our language, which could convey to the English reader so complete an idea of the stateliness, force, and point, which are the prominent features of the compositions of this Bard. It is needless to mention the translations of Stapleton, Holyday, Dryden and his coadjutors, and Owen, since they will not endure a comparison with that of Mr. Gifford, which conveys the sense and manner of the original in easy and flowing verse. As he professes to give the *whole* of Juvenal, and reprobates castrated editions, we are prepared for meeting with faint transcripts of the obnoxious passages; the management of which we should applaud, if we were not persuaded, notwithstanding Mr. G.'s remarks, that their omission would have been preferable to their exhibition even in the most delicate form. In a few instances, he has taken the liberty of dropping some sentences; and we are decidedly of opinion that his translation would not have been less valuable, had he indulged this liberty to a greater extent.—The different genius of the two languages obliged the translator to be more diffuse than the original; and, in order to express the meaning of his author, he is continually under the necessity of

being paraphrastic. We occasionally meet with unnecessary expletives, bad rhimes, and inelegant phrases: but, on the whole, the work is executed with great learning, skill, and taste.

For the satisfaction of our readers, we shall transcribe various examples.

In the 1st Satire, the well-known passage beginning *Cur tamen hoc potius*, &c. is thus translated:

> 'But why I choose, adventurous, to retrace
> The Auruncan's route, and in the arduous race
> Follow his glowing wheels, attentive hear,
> If leisure serve, and truth be worth your care.
> 'When the soft eunuch makes the fair a bride,
> When Mævia, all the woman laid aside,
> Enters the lists, and, to the middle bare,
> Hurls at the Tuscan boar the quivering spear;
> When he who oft, since manhood first appear'd,
> Hath trimm'd the exuberance of this sounding beard,
> Vies with the state in riches: when that vile
> And low-bred reptile, from the slime of Nile,
> Crispinus, from his lady-shoulder throws
> The purple cloak which too luxuriant flows,
> Or fans his finger, labouring with the freight
> Of a light summer ring; and, faint with heat,
> Cries, "save me from a gem of greater weight!"
> 'Tis hard to choose a less indignant strain—
> For who so slow of heart, so dull of brain,
> So patient of the town's increasing crimes,
> As not to burst impetuous into rhymes!'

The lines

> *Quandoquidem inter nos sanctissima divitiarum*
> *Majestas: etsi, funesta Pecunia, templo*
> *Nondum habitas, nullas nummorum ereximus aras,*
> *Ut colitur Pax, atque Fides, Victoria, Virtus.*

are rendered thus in the translation;

> 'Pernicious gold! though yet no temples rise,
> No altars to thy name perfume the skies,
> Such as to Victory, Virtue, Faith, are rear'd,
> And Concord, where the clamorous stork is heard,
> Yet is thy full divinity confess'd,
> And thy shrine fix'd in every human breast.'

The first three lines in the 2d Satire,

> *Ultra Sauromatas fugere hinc libet, et glacialem*
> *Oceanum, quoties aliquid de moribus audent*
> *Qui Curios simulant, et Bacchanalia vivunt;*

are translated,

'O, for

'O, for an eagle's wings! for I could fly
To the black regions of the polar sky,
Whene'er they make morality their theme
Who live like Bacchanals, yet Curii seem!'

We think that the force of the original is weakened by the transposition, and that it would be preferable to give it nearly in this manner:

"As from their lips the cant of virtue falls
Who Curii seem, yet live like Bacchanals."

In the 3d Satire, Umbritius's reasons for quitting Rome, beginning

Hic tunc Umbritius, &c.

are thus admirably translated,

'Umbritius here his sullen silence broke,
And turn'd on Rome, indignant, as he spoke.
Since Virtue droops, he cried, without regard,
And honest toil scarce hopes a poor reward;
Since every morrow sees my means decay,
And still makes less the little of to-day;
I hasten there, where, all his labours past,
The flying artist found repose at last;—
While something yet of health and strength remains,
While yet my steps no bending staff sustains,
While few gray hairs upon my head are seen,
And my old age is vigorous still, and green;
Here let me bid my native soil farewell—
There may Arturius and his colleague dwell;
Unblushing villains, who in truth's despite,
Can white to black transform, and black to white,
Build temples, furnish funerals, auctions hold,
Farm rivers, ports, and scour the drains for gold.'

The words, however, which follow a few lines afterward,

Quid Romæ faciam? Mentiri nescio,

are not rendered into English in a manner which can extort our praise:

'What should I do at Rome! I know not I,
To cog and flatter; I could never lie.'

The sentence

——— *Non possum ferre, Quirites,*
Græcam urbem—

is rendered:

'I cannot rule my spleen and calmly see
Rome dwindled to a Grecian colony.'

This, however, is not exactly Juvenal's idea. Umbritius's indignation is not excited by Rome being dwindled to a Grecian colony, but by seeing the city overflowed with the dregs of

of Greece. Johnson, in his satire intitled *London*, thus imitates this passage,

" I cannot bear a French-Metropolis."

At l. 169, Mr. G. has *out-Juvenaled Juvenal* by making

' The *hoary grandam* fall a sacrifice.'

It is true that the scholiast reads *aviam*: but is this word admissible?

The following passage is well given in the translation:

Nil habet infelix Paupertas durius in se,
Quam quod ridiculos homines facit:

' O Poverty! thy thousand ills combin'd,
Sink not so deep into the generous mind,
As the contempt and laughter of mankind.'

In the 6th Satire, which is the longest and most complete of Juvenal's works, the beauty of these lines is not diminished by Mr. G.:

Paulatim deinde ad superos Astræa recessit
Hac comite, atque duæ pariter fugêre sorores.

' At length Astrea, from these confines driven,
Regain'd, by slow degrees, her native heaven;
With her retir'd her sister in disgust,
And left the world to rapine, and to lust.'

We could have wished that, in the translation of the words a few lines preceding,

—— *sub Jove, sed Jove nondum*
Barbato,

the repetition of the word *Jove*, in which consists the point of the satire, had been preserved.

Juvenal is known to be very severe in this Satire on the Roman Ladies, and he particularly notices their different attentions to their paramours and their husbands. The following is a part of the picture:

' A woman stops at nothing, when she wears
Rich emeralds round her neck, and, in her ears,
Pearls of enormous size; these justify
Her faults, these make all lawful in her eye.
Sure, of all ills with which the state is curst,
A wife, who brings you money, is the worst.
Behold! her face a spectacle appears,
Bloated and foul, and plaister'd to the ears
With viscous pastes:—the husband looks askew,
And sticks his lips in this detested glue.
Still to the adulterer, sweet and clean she goes,
(No sight offends his eye, no smell his nose,)

But

But rots in filth at home, a very pest,
And thinks it loss of leisure to be drest.
For him she breathes of nard, for him alone,
She makes the sweets of Araby her own;
For him, at length, she ventures to uncase
Her person; scales the rough cast from her face,
And (while her maids to know her now begin)
Washes, with asses' milk, her frowzy skin;
Asses, which, exiled to the Pole, the fair,
For her charms' sake, would carry with her there.
But tell me yet; this thing, thus daub'd and oil'd,
Thus poultic'd, plaister'd, bak'd by turns and boil'd,
Thus with pomatums, ointments, lacquer'd o'er,
Is it a FACE, Ursidius, or a SORE?'

Dr. Johnson, in his imitation of the 10th Satire, has drawn a very striking and well executed picture of Charles XII., which he substitutes for that of Hannibal in the original poem. We have now an opportunity of exhibiting a good copy of the Hannibal of Juvenal:

'* Produce the urn that Hannibal contains,
And weigh the mighty dust which yet remains:
And is this all! Yet THIS was once the bold,
The aspiring chief, whom Afric could not hold,
Afric, outstretch'd from where the Atlantic roars,
To Nilus; from the Line, to Lybia's shores!
Spain conquer'd, o'er the Pyrenees he bounds;
Nature oppos'd her everlasting mounds,
Her Alps, and snows: through these he bursts his way,
And Italy already owns his sway——
Still thundering on,—"think nothing done," he cries,
Till low in dust our haughty rival lies;
Till through her smoaking streets I lead my powers,
And plant my standard on her hated towers."
Big words! But view his figure, view his face:
O, for some master-hand the chief to trace,
As through the Etrurian swamps, by rains increas'd,
Spoil'd of an eye he flounc'd, on his Getulian beast!
'But what ensued, illusive glory! say?—
Subdued on Zama's memorable day,
He flies in exile to a foreign state,
With headlong haste; and, at a despot's gate

'* *And weigh the mighty dust*, &c.] I do not know that this was ever done; at least with regard to Hannibal; but in the Statistical Account of Scotland, I find that Sir John Paterson had the curiosity to collect, and weigh the ashes of a person discovered a few years since in the parish of Eccles; which he was happily enabled to do with great facility, as "the inside of the coffin was smooth, and the whole body visible." Wonderful to relate, he found the whole did not exceed in weight one ounce and a half! AND IS THIS ALL!'

Sits,

Sits, wond'rous suppliant! of his fate in doubt,
'Till the Bithynian's morning nap be out.

'Just to his fame, what death has Heaven assign'd
This great controller of all human kind?
Did hostile armies give the fatal wound,
Or mountains press him, struggling, to the ground?
No; three small drops, within a ring conceal'd,
Aveng'd the blood he pour'd on Cannæ's field!
Go, madman, go! the paths of fame pursue,
Climb other Alps, and other realms subdue,
To please the rhetoricians, and become,
A DECLAMATION for the boys of Rome!'

Surely, when these two parallel passages are compared, Mr. Gifford will retract the observation made in the Essay, at the bottom of p. lxi., that Johnson's *Vanity of Human Wishes* has scarcely a trait of Juvenal's manner.

The conclusion of this Satire of Juvenal, *Nil ergo optabunt homines?* &c. is extremely beautiful; and we shall finish our extracts with Mr. Gifford's translation of it:

'Say then, must man, depriv'd all power of choice,
Ne'er raise to Heaven the supplicating voice?
Not so; but to the gods his fortunes trust;
Their thoughts are wise, their dispensations just.
What best may profit or delight they know,
And real good, for fancied bliss bestow;
With eyes of pity they our frailties scan;
More dear to them, than to himself, is man.
By blind desire, by headlong passion driven,
For wife and heirs we daily weary Heaven;
Yet still 'tis Heaven's prerogative to know,
If heirs, or wife, will bring us bliss or woe.

'But, that thou may'st (for still 'tis good to prove
Thy humble hope) ask something from above;
Thy pious offerings to the temples bear,
And, while the altars blaze, be this thy prayer.

'O THOU, who see'st the wants of human kind,
Grant me all health of body, health of mind;
A soul prepar'd to meet the frowns of fate,
And look undaunted on a future state;
That reckons death a blessing, yet can bear
Existence nobly, with its weight of care;
That anger and desire alike restrains,
And counts Alcides' toils and cruel pains,
Superior to the feasts, the wanton sport,
And morbid softness of the Assyrian court.

'THIS, thou to give thyself may'st well suffice:—
The only path to peace through virtue lies.

O Fortune,

O Fortune, Fortune *! all thy boasted powers
Would shrink to nothing, were but prudence ours:
But man, fond man, exalts thee to the spheres,
And clothes thee in the attributes he fears!'

Sat. VIII. l. 97,

——— *furor est post omnia perdere naulum,*

Mr. G. conceives to be a proverbial expression corresponding to the English saying, "Do not throw the haft after the hatchet;" and he thus renders it:

——————' 'tis honest craft:
Thou could'st not keep the hatchet,—save the haft.'

The peculiar conciseness of the Latin is generally beyond the power of imitation in an English translator; and hence he must yield to the necessity of being more or less diffuse. The following five words, in Sat. 8. l. 165,

breve sit quod turpiter audes,

are expanded into a couplet,

'O friends! be folly's giddy reign concise,
And brief the hour ye consecrate to vice.'

Sat. V. l. 66. (*cum multis aliis,*) is, however, dilated to a fault. Here, and in several other places, we lament that Mr. G. has given specimens of incorrect language, by the omission of the relative: but we are still more displeased with the number of low expressions, bad rhimes, and prosaic lines, to which we have already alluded; such as

'With whom wives, widows, every thing *went down.*'—
'Since, in his days, it *ask'd* no mighty pains.'—
'Spasm, sudden death, and without a will.'

The last is a line which wants the rhithm of poetry.

The word *betrays* is in one place employed as a rhime to *disease*, and *bought* to *throat* in another; and the following inelegant couplet presents itself at p. 97,

'And sure, in any corner we can get,
To call one lizard ours, is something yet!'

'* The exclamation in this line has been thought to savour of the sufficiency of Stoicism, but without reason; since, it must, in fairness, be restricted to the independence of the wise and virtuous man on fortune. Wisdom and virtue, indeed, Juvenal thought, with the rest of the heathen world, men could attain by their own exertions; but there were some at Rome, as Madan finely observes, at that time, who could have taught him, that, EVERY GOOD GIFT, AND EVERY PERFECT GIFT, IS FROM ABOVE; AND COMETH DOWN FROM THE FATHER OF LIGHTS.'

At p. 246, we have this line, which is eked out by an unnecessary *he*:

'Come at your beck; he heeds not, *he*, the poor!'

'What all *amort!*' in the first line of Sat. 9. is an obsolete or at least a provincial expression.

Many more spots and blemishes may be pointed out: but it is barely justice to add *plura nitent*, and to give Mr. G. the praise of being the best translator of Juvenal into English verse.

The first twenty or thirty lines of the 11th Satire were translated by Mr. Cookesley, the friend and patron of Mr. G.'s youth, and he has preserved them as a testimony of respect.

To the notes and illustrations which accompany the text, much commendation is due; and we purposed to have made larger extracts from them, than the length to which this article has already extended will now admit. As an annotator, Mr. Gifford excels; and he rarely draws us from the text to the bottom of the page without fully compensating us for the interruption. He is erudite, judicious, and sprightly, and is never a dead weight on the reader.

Critics have differed in their explanation of the passage in Sat. I. l. 155—157. *Pone Tigellinum, &c.**

The reader will be gratified by Mr. G.'s note.

'*Touch Tigellinus now, &c.*] Fielding makes Booth, in the other world, inquire of Shakspeare the precise meaning of the famous apostrophe of Othello, "Put out the light," &c.; and if some curious critic had done the same of Juvenal, respecting the sense of the following lines, he would have done a real service to the commentators, and saved an ocean of precious ink, which has been wasted on them to little purpose. The lines stand thus in the old editions, as cited by Lipsius.

"Pone Tigellinum, tæda lucebis in illa
Qua stantes ardent, qui fixo gutture fumant,
Et latus mediam sulcus diducit arenam."

"Touch but Tigellinus, and you shall shine in that torch, where they stand and burn, who smoke, fastened to a stake, and (where) a wide furrow divides the sand."

'The dreadful conflagration which laid waste a great part of Rome in the reign of Nero, broke out in the house of Tigellinus. As his intimacy with the Emperor was no secret, it strengthened the general belief, that the city was burned by design. Nothing seems to have enraged Nero so much as this discovery; and to avert the odium from his favourite, he basely taxed the Christians with having set fire to his house. Under this pretence, thousands of these innocent victims were dragged to a cruel death. The Emperor, says Tacitus, (Ann. xv. 44.) added insult to their sufferings; some were covered with the skins of wild beasts, and worried to death by dogs; others

* See our account of Madan's *prose* translation of Juvenal, Rev. Vol. lxxxi. and Vol. i. N. S. p. 239-240.

—were crucified, and others, again, WERE SMEARED WITH INFLAMMABLE MATTER, and LIGHTED UP WHEN THE DAY DECLINED, TO SERVE AS TORCHES DURING THE NIGHT! This last horrid species of barbarity sufficiently explains the two first lines; the remaining one, it seems, is not so easily got over.

'I once supposed that a part of the amphitheatre might be separated from the rest by a "wide furrow," or ditch, and allotted to this dreadful purpose: this idea, however, does not seem to have occurred to any of the critics, (no great recommendation of it, I confess,) since they prefer altering the text, and reading,

"Et latum media sulcum deduces arena."

"And you shall make, or draw out, a wide furrow in the sand." That is, say they, "by turning round the stake to avoid the flames:" which, as the sufferer was fixed to it, he could not well do. If the alteration be allowed, I should rather imagine the sense to be, "when the pitched cloth, in which you are wrapped, is burnt out, your scorched and half consumed body shall be dragged by a hook out of the arena." In the translation (for I am not quite satisfied with this last interpretation), I have taken "*et*" for a disjunctive, and supposed the passage to relate to a separate punishment. Madan's, or rather Curio's, idea, that the expression is proverbial in this place, and means "labouring in vain," is almost too absurd for notice. "You will be burned alive if you touch any of the Emperor's favourites, and besides, you will plough the sand, you will lose your labour!"

'There is yet another meaning adopted by some of the learned, and which is produced by a gentleman in his remarks on Madan's translation of this very line. "I am surprised (he says) that Mr. M. when he knew so much, should not have been acquainted with the following passage of Jos. Scaliger, which sets the whole in the *clearest light*. *Stantibus ad palum destinatis unco (ne motatione capitis picem cadentem declinarent) gutturi suffixo è lamina ardente pix aut unguen in caput liquefiebat, ita ut rivi pinguedinis humanæ per arenam sulcum facerent.* By this interpretation, so intuitively true, that, by one acquainted with the facts, it might have been deduced from the vulgar text without the emendation of Scaliger," (rather of Lipsius, *Scaligero*, as Ferrarius says, *non improbante*,) "the spirit of the poet is vindicated, history illustrated, and the image raised to its climax."

'I have seen enough of criticism to be always on my guard against interpretations "intuitively true." Human fat, whether dissolved "in streams," or, as this gentleman translates it, "drop by drop," could scarcely make a wide furrow in the sand; and, indeed, both Ferrarius and Vossius, who had this interpretation of Scaliger's before them, concur in rejecting it as improbable. With respect to the "illustration of history," the former adds, "*Quæ Scaliger de lamina et pice adhibita Christianis ad palum, non memini me apud alios legisse!*" I see no reason to alter my translation.

'To return to Tigellinus; he was recommended to Nero by his debaucheries. After the murder of Burrhus, he succeeded to the command of the prætorian guards, and abused the ascendency he had over the Emperor, to the most dreadful purposes. He afterwards

wards betrayed him; by which, and other acts of perfidy, he secured himself, during the short reign of Galba. He was put to death by Otho, to the great joy of the people; and he died as he had lived, a profligate and a coward.

'Who the person was that is here alluded to under his name, cannot now be known. Trajan, though a good prince on the whole, had many failings. He is covertly taxed, as I have observed, in this very Satire, for his lenity in the affair of Marius; and the blood-suckers of Domitian's time seem to have yet had too much influence. He was, besides, addicted to a vice which we shall have too frequent occasions to mention, and consequently surrounded by effeminate and worthless favourites, whom it might be dangerous to provoke. For these, and other reasons, Juvenal seems to have regarded him with no great kindness; and, indeed, if the state of things be truly represented, we cannot accuse him of injustice.'

The *Cophinus, fœnumque supellex*, in Sat. 3, and the *Cophino fœnoque relicto* in Sat. 6, occasion these notes:

'*Whose wealth is but a basket stuff'd with hay:*—] The commentators, not content with the obvious meaning of this passage, have laboured to find a mystery in it. Britannicus, in his observations on the Sixth Satire, (where the same words are again used,) says, the hay served them to lie on. This is rational enough; but how, rejoins Holyday, could they carry about sufficient for such a purpose? He, therefore, inclines to think, with Lyranus, that the hay was not so much a mark of their poverty, as of their servitude in Egypt, which, it seems, they gloried in obtruding upon the notice of the Romans: by way of contrasting it, I suppose, with their present flourishing and happy situation! It may look like trifling to reply, that in this case, they should rather have carried straw; but the truth is, there is no room for refinement on the subject. The poet merely intended to censure the irreligion and avarice of his countrymen. The former, in assigning the sacred groves to this despised race (*pars despectissima servientium*) who, being driven from the city by Domitian, were glad to take up their abode in the nearest place which promised them a shelter: and the latter, in exacting the rent from them, though all their wealth was a basket, in which, perhaps, they carried what they begged, and a little hay, which either served for provender for their beasts (asses), or for themselves to lay their heads on at night.

'One of Juvenal's most judicious translators observes, that it is "improbable the Jews should pay tribute (why *tribute?* is it not *mercedem, rent?*) for their cold lodging in a grove." Yet this is expressly asserted by this author, *omnis enim populo, &c.!* He will, therefore, have it (and he is far from being singular) that Juvenal alludes to the tribute which every Jew was obliged to pay to the Temple, and which, after its destruction, Vespasian transferred to the Capitol. Such an idea is altogether inconsistent with the spirit of the passage. The obnoxious nature of the demand (in Juvenal's mind) was for the use of the groves themselves, and every other supposition weakens the force of his satire.'—

'*Has left her hay and basket;*] The Jews have here the same characteristic symbols they had in the third Satire: their baskets and their hay. Domitian had laid a heavy poll-tax on these people, and that they might not evade it, they were enjoined, I suppose, not to appear abroad without these badges of their condition. To avoid being detected, and insulted by the rabble when they entered the city, these poor persecuted wretches laid aside their degrading accompaniments. This accounts for the epithet *tremens*, which Juvenal applies to this female fortune-teller, who, if she had been discovered, would, in spite of her lofty pretensions, have been severely punished for contempt of the imperial regulations. What is meant by *magna sacerdos arboris*, high-priestess of the tree, I cannot tell. Probably the Egerian grove, the degradation of which is so indignantly deplored in the third Satire, might, like the Norwood of our metropolis, be frequented by such of the vulgar as were anxious to inquire their fortunes. In that case, some favourite tree might be the place of rendezvous, and this Betty Squires, the most infallible oracle of it.

'The conjectures of some of the critics, that Juvenal alludes to the idolatrous propensity of the Jews for worshipping in woods; and of others, that he hints at the "grove of oaks by Dodona in Chaonia, which was consecrated to Jupiter," are alike unfounded. Of the first he knew nothing; and the second was much too far-fetched for his purpose.'

By the line at the beginning of Sat. 3, *Atque unum civem donare Sibyllæ*, Mr. G. thinks that the poet meant to insinuate that Cumæ was entirely deserted: but he offers no reason to induce us to concur with him in opinion. We are still less disposed to subscribe to the whole of his critique at p. 197, on the expression, *mero spumant unguenta Falerno*, Sat 6. l. 303. His remarks on the practice of the Romans in mixing perfumes with their wine are correct: but he is not happy in endeavouring to illustrate Scripture by alluding to this custom. We transcribe his own words, which he modestly introduces with an apology:

'I would not lightly introduce sacred matters; but I wish to observe here, that the Jews were accustomed to give condemned persons a draught of wine and myrrh. This is apparent from the last scene of our blessed Saviour's life. St. Mark calls the wine which they gave him σεμυρνισμενον οινον. This was according to the usual practice; and the merciful purpose of it was to stupify the feelings of the sufferer. This was independent of what they offered him afterwards—that was done in derision; but they first acted by him as they did by common criminals.

'In his prayer before his Passion, he prays that the "cup might pass from him." Is it allowable to conjecture, that, in his own mind, he put the customary cup of stupefaction, for his actual death?'

As our Saviour was born a Jew, it is not probable that he alluded to a Roman custom, nor that he thought of the cup

of stupefaction in his prayer, "let this cup pass from me." Any person may see, by consulting the O. T., that it was usual with the Jews to describe a state of happiness or of suffering by their having a cup of joy or of sorrow.

We shall terminate our quotations from this part of the work with the subsequent note, which contains a pleasant anecdote:

"*Hear now what sneaking ways, &c.*]

"Discite pro numeris numeros sperare, poetæ,
Mutare est animus carmina, non emere." *Vet. Epig.*

There is a very good story told by Macrobius, which will not be much out of the way here. A Greek poet had presented Augustus Cæsar with many little compliments, in hopes of some trifling remuneration. The emperor, who found them worth nothing, took no notice of the poor man; but as he persisted in offering him his complimentary verses, composed himself an epigram in praise of the poet; and when he next waited on him with his customary panegyric, presented his own to him with amazing gravity. The man took, and read it with apparent satisfaction; then putting his hand into his pocket, he deliberately drew out two farthings, and gave them to the Emperor, saying, ω κατα την τυχην, ω σεβαστε· ω πλειονα ειχον, πλειονα αν και εδιδουν. "This is not equal to the demands of your situation, Sire; but 'tis all I have: if I had more I would give it to you." Augustus, who was not an ill-natured man, could not stand this; he burst into a fit of laughter, and, as Macrobius says, made the poet a handsome present.

A The Bafo of Pope is shadowed out in part from this animated passage:

"Till grown more frugal in his riper days,
He paid some bards with port, and some with praise;
To some a dry rehearsal was assign'd,
And others, harder still! he paid in kind."

Mr. Gifford acknowleges his obligations to the Rev. Mr. Ireland, Vicar of Croydon, and to Abraham More, Esq. Barrister at Law, for their inspection and occasional correction of his work; and to R. P. Knight, Esq., who generously offered him the use of his marbles and gems for engravings illustrative of Juvenal; which, however, did not come within Mr. G.'s design.

Though our praise has not been altogether unqualified, we sincerely congratulate the public on this translation of Juvenal; and we would add our wish that, when Mr. Gifford has furnished the libraries of those gentlemen who purchase elegant editions, he will condescend to provide for those poorer readers, to whose pockets an humble octavo is more adapted than a superb quarto.

ART. II. *GULIELMI HEBERDEN Commentarii de Morborum Historiâ et Curatione.* 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Payne. 1802.

WE have perused the observations of this venerable and lamented physician, as here published by his son, with much attention and interest. From the length and extensiveness of his experience, considerable information was to be expected; and we meet indeed with many valuable remarks in the present volume:—if there be less novelty than some readers might desire, the defect must be imputed to Dr. Heberden's plan in composing the book, of which he has most ingenuously acknowleged the defects. We learn that he was accustomed, when called to visit a patient, to write down, in the room, the principal symptoms of the disease, with the remarks which occurred to him at the moment of inspection; and from materials thus prepared, he selected, every month, those notes which it seemed of consequence to preserve, trusting in nothing to his memory, and making no reference to books. While we are thus presented with a series of facts and opinions, intitled to the highest credit, it must obviously happen that, on the subject of many diseases, observations common to former writers will be found; and that deficiencies will occur, both with respect to the history of symptoms, and the method of cure. It is on this plan only, however, that medicine can be improved; and if every physician of eminence were to furnish the results of his practice with the same candour and love of truth, we should not have to lament the present number of incurable diseases.

We find much good sense, but nothing new nor striking, in the first articles, on Diet, the *Ratio Medendi*, &c. which are rather sketches than comprehensive views of the subjects.—As it would answer no good purpose to notice any observations which are to be found in other books, we shall extract those passages which seem of most importance, as they occur, in going through the book.

Speaking of evacuations from the intestines, the author mentions that he had known a patient who had twelve operations every day during thirty years; and afterward seven daily, during seven years: yet, instead of being wasted, he had rather gained in corpulence.

In describing the scarlet fever, and ulcerated sore throat, Dr. Heberden seems to consider them as diseases almost peculiar to childhood. In this respect, we are confident that he was deceived; and it is of consequence to remark the error, because it might lead to the neglect of measures of prevention, and greatly increase the fatality of a highly contagious disease. We have seen many adults labouring under the complaint, in

both

both its forms; that is, the ulcerated throat accompanied with scarlet fever of a regular type; and the ulcerated throat attended with little or no fever, and without eruptions, but infectious. We shall quote Dr. H.'s words, that there may be no chance of misrepresenting his meaning:

'*Anginam in morbis incuntis ætatis recte numeraveris. Mares certe, qui jam adulti sunt, raro cum ea conflictantur. Duos curavi juvenes, qui annum vigesimum attigerant; item virum unum robustum, qui trigesimum annum excesserat. Præter hos autem neminem marem adolescentia egressum in hoc morbo me vidisse memini. At usu didici fœminas nunquam prorsus securas esse ab hac valetudine; quanquam vetulæ sint illi minus opportunæ, quam juniores. Quæ autem huic febri maxime subjecta est, eadem ætas tenera gravissime periclitatur; contra ac fit in variolis et morbillis.*'

The plan of cure recommended by the author, which consists chiefly in giving a decoction of Peruvian bark, with the addition of some aromatics, is adapted only to slight cases of the disease. In many instances, the most powerful doses of bark in substance, and large quantities of wine and other stimulants, are necessary to preserve the patient.

The chapter on aphtha is very imperfect, and has disappointed us greatly; especially considering the information which has been afforded respecting this disease, in Dr. Willan's Reports. The description of gout, on the contrary, is satisfactory and copious; though little could be added to the history of the disease already given by Sydenham and Cullen: but respecting the cure of gout, Dr. Heberden has advanced many remarks which deserve serious attention. He is inclined to doubt the salutary effects which are commonly attributed to regular gout; and he thinks that gout not only fails to relieve the constitution from disease already existing in it, but that it adds to the patient's sufferings, and accelerates his decay.—He observes that the dread of blood-letting in gouty cases has been carried too far; and he mentions two patients who were always relieved by using this remedy on the approach of the paroxysm, and who never sustained any inconvenience from it. He remarks that, before the gout is objected to physicians as the opprobium of their art, patients ought to dismiss their fears of being cured of this disease: '*Utinam*, (says he,) *tam in promptu esset invenire, quam tutum adhibere podagræ remedium.*'

Wine, in considerable quantities, Dr. H. considers as injurious to gouty persons; and he thinks that the warmth and indulgence usually enjoined, at the approach of a regular attack, are improper, because this mode of treatment tends to prolong the fit. He mentions, though without venturing to recommend it, the practice of the great Dr. Harvey, who was accus-

tomed to put his leg and foot into cold water, when he felt the gout coming on.—The Bath-water, we are told, has little efficacy in relieving gout; and its principal utility depends on correcting the dyspeptic symptoms to which arthritic patients are liable.

When gout attacks the stomach, it is best removed (according to Dr. H.) by opium and aromatics: but he discourages the large use of wine and stimulants, even in this case. He next treats of the celebrated Portland powder, respecting which his sentiments differ materially from those of Dr. Cullen. As this powder is composed of tonics and bitters, and as the gout affects the stomach chiefly and produces inappetency and indigestion, Dr. Heberden deems it probable that a medicine of this nature may at least afford considerable relief. The bad consequences attributed to the employment of it, especially apoplexy and palsy, belong, in his opinion, to the disease itself. One great objection to the use of the Portland powder, Dr. H. observes, is its bulk; which might be obviated, by rejecting some of the less powerful ingredients. When reduced to a dose of fifteen grains, with three or four grains in addition of some aromatic powder, he supposes that a combination of bitters may be usefully exhibited for a length of time, in gouty habits.—We doubt the accuracy of his distinction, however, when he adds that the Portland powder is equally efficacious in rheumatism; meaning, we apprehend, the acute form of that disease.

In treating of ascarides, we are surprized to find no mention of the efficacy of lime-water, used as a glyster.

The chapter on asthma does not contain much matter of importance; excepting two cases, in which the patients died after severe asthmatic attacks, yet, on dissection, little or no disease could be discovered in the lungs.

Dr. Heberden assigns one chapter to the discussion of the virtues of Bath-waters. In those cases in which different physicians have ascribed opposite effects to them, he thinks that their power must be very trifling; and that the results of the diseases ought to be ascribed to other causes. He doubts whether these waters can remove the debility consequent on rheumatism, gout, or palsy; and their principal efficacy consists, according to him, in curing the morning sickness and vomiting, the pains of the stomach, and other symptoms occasioned by hard drinking: but they accelerate the progress of scirrhous liver and dropsy. They relieve dyspeptic complaints in general: but, in hectic fever, in hypochondriacal and hysteric cases, they are injurious.

Bristol water is mentioned as neither pure, nor useful in any disease.

In

In the interesting chapter on head-ach, Dr. Heberden has collected a number of facts which, though not new, merit attentive consideration. The remedies which he has found most useful, in chronic head-ach, are blisters to the head; cupping and scarification applied every month, near the hind-head; and pills given at bed-time, containing a grain of aloes, and four grains of colombo-root. Vomiting occasionally has also produced relief.

The remedies prescribed for chorea appear to be rather too feeble: five grains of myrrh, and two grains of pulvis opiatus, taken every night at bed-time, with a bitter infusion once or twice in a day, are scarcely equal to the removal of this disease. We have often found it necessary to give bark and steel in pretty large doses, and to employ the electric shock; at the same time immersing the patient every other day in the cold-bath. The latter remedy is not prescribed by Dr. H. till the patient is beginning to recover.

A similar remark, we fear, must be applied to the remedies indicated in diarrhœa. Few severe cases would yield to the small doses of opium which are here directed.

The principal remedy mentioned for the cure of symptoms produced by intemperance is the Bath-water; provided that it be employed before any organic affection of the stomach or liver has taken place.

In speaking of epilepsy, the author remarks that, in persons affected with this disease from their infancy, he never saw recovery take place at the age of puberty.

The chapter on fever in general is very short, and in course unsatisfactory. The author doubts the febrifuge power of antimony, at the beginning of fevers: but we think that few practitioners of experience will concur with him in this scepticism.

Respecting hydrophobia, we find only a short notice that the author once saw the dread of water excited by a simple inflammatory sore throat.

In dropsy, Dr. H. mentions that several patients have been cured by taking a grain or two of elaterium, once in four or five days. He has also given gamboge, in doses of ten grains, with advantage.

The chapter on jaundice is long, and contains many useful, but in general well-known facts. In the pain and sickness occasioned by biliary calculi, Dr. H. recommends opium, and saline purgatives. He does not seem to depend on the powers of mercury in this case. He mentions that a physician of his acquaintance thought that he had seen much advantage from giving a scruple of salt of hartshorn thrice in a day: but he adds that he

he has known also much relief afforded by considerable quantities of lemon-juice.

In treating of ileus, the author has condensed much valuable information. His objections to the use of crude mercury, though forcible, do not comprize the strongest argument against this practice, and we are astonished that it has escaped him. Mercury divides, by pressure, into such small globules, that it is capable of finding its way through a very narrow channel, without inlarging it.

The chapter on measles contains a very full and accurate description of the symptoms, but little that is worthy of remark concerning the cure of the disease.

The same observation may be applied to the chapter on apoplexy and palsy; which is terminated by the history of a well-marked case of catalepsy.

The various appearances of that still mysterious disease, *Angina Pectoris*, are well detailed, but no additional information is given respecting the remedies.

The author mentions, from the report of Sir Edward Wilmot, an instance of a cure effected in the *morbus pedicularis*, by the external application of a solution of camphor in equal parts of spirit of wine and spirit of turpentine.

On the subject of phthisis, we meet with nothing new: but the directions relating to regimen deserve an attentive perusal. The author strongly inculcates abstinence from animal food and wine, and dwells on the necessity of drinking pure water, such as that of Malvern.

For those who are distressed by accumulations of mucus in the fauces, Dr. H. recommends ten grains of the powder of colombo, with a grain or two of pepper, or ginger: a grain of aloes may be occasionally added, to prevent costiveness.

In scirrhus of the prostate gland, he observes, relief is principally to be expected from an anodyne glyster, thrown into the rectum every night.

The chapter on rheumatism has given us less satisfaction than any other in the volume. The stages and remedies of acute and chronic rheumatism are not discriminated with sufficient accuracy; and we cannot assent to Dr. H.'s opinion that opium alone is as efficacious in rheumatism, as when given in combination with Dover's powder, or with antimonials. We have had several opportunities of knowing the contrary.

For the cure of hiccough, which is sometimes a very troublesome and tedious concomitant of diseases in the stomach and bowels, Dr. H. advises opium.

In speaking of the different species of hæmoptysis, Dr. H. mentions that he had known a healthy man at the age of seventy, who during fifty years had been subject to a spitting of blood once in two years.

The origin of strumous swellings is ascribed by our author to the use of impure water; we think, without sufficient proof.

Three curious cases are given, in which the spleen was the organ principally diseased. In the first and second, it was ulcerated; in the third it was only enlarged. It is impossible, however, to collect from these cases any pathognomonic signs of this distemper.

After the attention which we have paid to this estimable work, it would be superfluous to recommend it to our readers. We apprehend that it will claim a place in the library of every physician; and if we have ventured to express an occasional difference of opinion from its highly respected author, it has been chiefly dictated by the supposition that most of our medical friends must have already made themselves acquainted with the book. In other branches of science, authority governs opinion: in medicine it holds the balance of life or death: the doctrines of eminent writers, therefore, require an examination of the most critical accuracy; and he is the best friend to the fame of a good man, who assists in clearing his writings from the imperfections attendant on all human efforts.

The work is written in Latin, and dedicated by the editor, in the same language, to his Majesty: but an English edition is also published.

Art. III. *Science Revived,* or the Vision of Alfred. A Poem, in Eight Books. 4to. 18s. Boards. Gameau and Co. 1802.

The action of this poem is simple: the goddess of Science appears to Alfred, accompanied by Sylphs, transports him to the Temple of Genius, and gives him a prophetic history of learning; especially of the progress of knowlege in England. As this is supposed to pass in a sort of day-dream, while the Prince lay 'beneath an elm's thick boughs,' it is evident that he had much the advantage of Reviewers; who are obliged to exert themselves to keep awake over this performance, beside a coal-fire, in a severe winter's day. The spirit of criticism cannot be said to 'visit our slumbers nightly;' for before we write, alas! we must read.

The machinery of the Sylphs, who are represented as the agents directing the operations of the mind, might have been

turned

turned to better purpose, had the author been acquainted with the Platonic philosophy. He would have found, in the aërial demons of Plato, this system arranged by the hand of a master, and graced with the illusion of his authority. There is a sort of anachronism, also, in referring the Sylphs to the time of Alfred, since their existence was first supposed, with much other nonsense of the same kind, by Philip Bumbastus, commonly called Paracelsus. Pope has indeed consecrated this species of agency, in the heroi-comic poem; and Dr. Darwin incumbered his *Loves of the Plants* with Sylphs: but the writer before us has rendered his work in some degree historical, and ought to have adapted his machines to the belief of the times.

In this author's hands, the Sylphs become the actors of an ingenious puppet-shew, which Alfred beholds from the 'Tower of Speculation,' and which represents the vicissitudes of literature in all parts of Europe, interpreted by the attendant goddess.

We must acknowlege that, in the opening of some of the books, the Sylphs make a brilliant and amusing appearance. They fill the air, sometimes like moths, sometimes like humming-birds, or butterflies; and the author seems to have devoted nearly his whole powers to the description of their gambols:

> 'As choice directs they move. Some onward fly,
> Till heav'n absorbs them from the straining eye.
> Some closely shave the ground, and some in rings
> Around the Goddess shake their little wings.
> Mixt and convolv'd some flutter overhead,
> And a gay shower of glittering colours shed.
> Their forms, so finely was the texture spun,
> Ev'n where they crowd the most, transmit the sun.
> And still as on the buxom air they danc'd,
> Sunk or shot upward, vanish'd or advanc'd,
> The skies grew mild by endless pinions fann'd,
> And their faint shadows chequer'd all the land.'

The simile of the humming-bird is in still better taste:

> 'Not tints of half so exquisite a grain
> Adorn the smallest of the feather'd train,
> The fly-birds, that in equinoctial isles,
> Where round the year unfading nature smiles,
> 'Mid groves of blowing myrrh or citron bow'rs
> Hang o'er the nectar-brimming cups of flow'rs;
> And while with ceaseless hum the valley rings,
> From the mix'd fluttering of innum'rous wings,
> Whose strokes for sight too rapid seem to bear
> Their tiny bodies motionless in air,

With

With deep-inserted bill, delightful toil,
From the rich blossom gather balmy spoil.'

In some of these passages, we are too closely reminded of Pope: thus at the opening of the sixth book;

'Pleased in a sea of fluid light to lave,
Their colours always varying as they turn.'

These lines are taken, with little variation, from the Rape of the Lock.

We extract, as a specimen of the author's graver manner, the presentation of Milton:

'She ended, and a bard of godlike air
Before them rose. His long and auburn hair
Deep study more than years had mix'd with white:
Quench'd in thick clouds appear'd his orbs of sight;
Yet seated on his forehead's awful throne,
Calm majesty bespoke the beams that shone
Within, and to his mental eye reveal'd
Visions of bliss from outward sense conceal'd.
He trod the foot of Sion's sacred hill;
And close beneath him wander'd Siloe's rill.
Form'd of refulgent gold an harp he bore,
And while his hands the richest tones explore,
And ev'ry thrilling note to heav'n aspires,
Pour'd his whole soul along the trembling wires.
Then join'd his voice, and in symphonious lay
From the bright regions of eternal day
Call'd Inspiration, not the fabled Nine,
But Wisdom, Truth, and Sanctity divine.
'He sung not long, before a sudden gleam
Shot through the sever'd clouds in copious stream,
And Heaven's wide gates unfolding show'd from far
A Goddess sliding in a glorious car.
She wore a mantle of cerulean dye,
Spangled with stars it seem'd a floating sky.
The Zodiac's signs her glittering zone compos'd,
And wreaths of amarinth her brows inclos'd.
Steeds of celestial race the chariot drew,
And with the sound of rushing whirlwinds flew.
The wond'rous frame of radiant urim wrought
Surpass'd the utmost stretch of human thought.
The wheels with sparkling eyes were thick inlaid,
And o'er the seat fair cherubs spread a shade.
She tow'rd the poet caus'd the car to glide;
Then bending rais'd and plac'd him by her side,
Tun'd to his harp her lyre's ecstatic strain,
And bade th' immortal courers bound again.
They heard, and while the bard and Goddess sung,
Through the blue fields of ether swiftly sprung.
As whirl'd the wheels, from ev'ry living spoke
Incessant sparks and dazzling flashes broke,

Till

Till the whole car a mighty blaze became,
And more than half the heav'ns was wrapt in flame.
Oppress'd, his looks the Hero downward cast,
And though he rais'd them soon, the pomp was past;
The flying pair had Nature's verge attain'd,
And a long path of light alone remain'd.'

It will appear from these extracts, that the author's style of versification is somewhat heavy, though generally correct; and that his powers of description are rather turned to prettiness than beauty. His rhimes are not always exact: *swerve*, or *preserve*, and *curve*, are employed on more than one occasion; and we meet with *caught* and *float*, and other rhimes equally unlicensed.

It is probable that this writer would have succeeded better, if he had been employed on a subject less extensive, and calculated for lighter decorations. He evidently bends under the formidable task which he has here undertaken; in the execution of which the finest genius would encounter great obstacles.

ART. IV. *A Poetical Introduction to the Study of Botany.* By Frances Arabella Rowden. 8vo. 10s. 6d. (Large Paper, 1l. 1s.) White. 1801.

THE poetical part of this elegant volume is introduced by a distinct and brief account of the structure and classification of plants. The fair writer then proceeds to describe each genus, in verses similar to those of our departed friend, Dr. Darwin, whose manner she has very happily imitated. We shall select one or two of these descriptions:

'GALIUM.—Lady's Bedstraw *.

TETRANDRIA MONOGYNIA.

'As India's pearls with soften'd lustre deck
The nymph's light tresses, or her snowy neck;
So gentle Galia shines with modest grace,
And sheds reflected beauty on her race.
At rosy dawn the lovely maid we view
Ope her bright eye, and sip the silver dew;
Her polish'd form recline in roseate bow'rs,
Where *four gay sylphs* enchant the smiling hours;
Waft fleeting time on pleasure's golden wing,
And sweetly hail the joys of cheerful spring.'

'* Four stamens, one pistil. A delicate little flower; the blossoms are white; the stem is jointed, and has about eight or ten leaves at each joint: the seeds are rough. It is frequent in fields and by the sides of hedges.'

In

In the following lines, we discern the same kind of merit, but perhaps a little quaintness; for the stock July-flower certainly bloomed in the same genus, previously to the French Revolution:

CHEIRANTHUS.

Stock July-flower.

TETRADYNAMIA, SILIQUOSA.

'Where now, St. Lewis, is thy royal vest?
Where the *gay cross* that grac'd thy Nobles' breast?
Each order, ensign, monument, and bust,
The foot of Discord trampled in the dust.
Then dreadful Anarchy her sword unsheath'd,
And through the air her noxious poison breath'd:
On the vast wreck of ruin'd France she stood,
And dy'd her garments in her Monarch's blood.
Martyr'd Religion, with uplifted hand,
Invok'd forgiveness on her guilty land;
With holy lips she kiss'd th' extended knife,
And with a smile resign'd her spotless life.
Distracted Virtue beat her tortur'd breast,
Wept o'er her race, and sunk to endless rest;
And Genius, as she wing'd from thence her flight,
Threw o'er the land the sable shade of night.
At the sad scene bright Cheirantha rose,
And tun'd her lyre to chaunt her cruel woes;
In robes of golden majesty adorn'd
She shone the emblem of the Saint she mourn'd.
Four loyal youths, in Mis'ry's moving strain,
Sing of their injur'd King and Nobles slain.
Two seraph boys, bedew'd with tears, relate
The faded glories of their fallen state.
When Heav'n, to save the virtuous from the storm,
Sent gentle Pity in Britannia's form:
Her waving plumage and her burnish'd shield
To suff'ring France the Angel-maid reveal'd.
She call'd the exil'd wand'rers to her land,
And heal'd their sorrows with celestial hand:
Threw o'er their trembling limbs her crimson vest,
And sooth'd their matchless agonies to rest.'

In the verses on *mustard*, the author has made a mistake sufficiently excusable. She has celebrated Whitehead's essence of mustard as derived from that plant, though it is a composition of other ingredients, and a prescription in daily use among the regular faculty.

We have been particularly pleased with the succeeding lines:

CITRUS.

'CITRUS.—Citron*.

POLYADELPHIA, ICOSANDRIA.

'In beauty blooming, and in artless grace,
The fragrant *Citra* rears her glitt'ring race;
The pale-eyed *Lima*, lofty and austere,
Checks her *gay suitors* with a tone severe:
With milder charms along the fertile glade
Glows bright *Aurantia* with a deeper shade;
Rears her tall head in vegetable pride,
And bends her loaded boughs on ev'ry side.
These juicy stores to foreign skies unfold,
In clusters thick, like pendent drops of gold.
'So the fair fruit in Eden's garden shone
In Nature's morn, ere Death and Sin were known.
When blushing Eve along the tuneful grove
Breath'd the sweet strains of Innocence and Love,
Her pleasures pure, her bosom free from care;
Her soul as spotless as her form was fair:
Till tempted by the fatal tree, she saw,
She pluck'd its fruit, and broke th' Almighty's law.
Ah! by this deed what knowledge was reveal'd?
To know that sin, till now, had been conceal'd;
To learn the sentence of her sad disgrace,
A mother punish'd in her future race:
To change for Sorrow's night gay Pleasure's morn,
And feel the curse of ages yet unborn.
O'erwhelm'd with shame she bow'd before her God,
Wept her offence, and left her pure abode.
The op'ning blossoms drank the tears she shed,
In pity griev'd, and droop'd their dewy head.
Still mourn her course, like theirs so swiftly run,
And weep at dawn of day and setting sun.'

The notes to these poetical *morceaux* are correct and useful: for general readers, some of them might perhaps have been spared: but the fair author may be more aware of their necessity for young ladies just commencing their studies, which this publication is exceedingly well calculated to promote.

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* *Citrus.*—Filaments in many bodies, stamens on the calyx or corolla. The characters of this genus are a small quinquefid calyx, a corolla of five oblong petals, about twenty stamens placed cylindrically round the lower part of the tube, with the filaments connected rather slightly in several parcels; one pistil; and for the fruit a berry, generally nine-celled, with a bladdery pulp in which the seeds are lodged. The species are, the Citrus Medica, or Citron Tree, which comprehends the Citron and Lemon. The Aurantium, or Orange Tree; the varieties of which are the Seville, the China Orange, the Decumanus or Shaddock Tree, and the Forbidden Fruit Tree.'

ART.

ART. V. *Claims of Literature:* The Origin, Motives, Objects, and Transactions, of the Society for the Establishment of a Literary Fund. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Miller. 1802.

AMONG the numerous charitable establishments in this country, which excite the admiration of foreigners, while we are scarcely aware ourselves of their extent and efficacy, one of the most liberally conceived and most delicately conducted is that which is explained in the work before us.—Apprehensive that the progress of their views might be obstructed by misconceptions on the part of the public, this benevolent Society determined to state their objects in the fullest manner; and the execution of this task has devolved on Mr. David Williams, already well known by various literary productions, and one of the most active members of this Institution. The poetical addresses, delivered at the meetings of the Society, are collected, and introduced with a preface by Mr. Boscawen.

It appears to be the principal aim of this Society to assist, under the temporary difficulties to which they are often exposed, those authors who have received the instruction, but who have not obtained the rewards of a regular education. To the objection, that the universities may be supposed to furnish support to the candidates for literary distinction, the author replies that religion, not literature, is the object of those institutions; and he adds:

'The English Universities are the most noble of all literary institutions, in ancient and modern times; perfectly suited to the condition of society at their foundation, they completely formed in their schools all the abilities then required. To be destined for a profession, by being educated on any of the foundations of an university, insured some species of support, and even consecrated beggary was relieved with reverence. The literature of those ages, therefore, did not plunge its votaries into misery.

'The universities, which are among the most opulent corporations of the country, extend their privileges at this time to the protection of many of their members; but not of all; and if of all, their influence would be very limited. The Reformation has considerably narrowed the demand for those qualities which they were appointed to furnish, and genius and literature, without the limits of their protection, are abandoned to the chances of life.

'Besides, "the charitable foundations of scholarships and exhibitions, attach great numbers to studies and pursuits, which the spirit of the times renders neither useful nor convenient." * Can they be blamed for having been thus educated? Or, could it have been in the contemplation of their parents, that, with cultivated minds, and with habits of study, they should be preserved from starving by a Literary Fund?'

'* Adam Smith.'

Mr. Williams has indicated, in more than one passage, the danger of withdrawing labourers from agriculture, by giving a superficial education to boys under the auspices of some charitable establishments; and his remarks on this delicate subject are shrewd, though rather sarcastic. If, by the present state of public and private institutions for education, a class of literary men be formed, not only detached from the community but at enmity with it, the evil cannot be too speedily remedied: but we are inclined to hope that this representation is somewhat exaggerated. We extract the author's candid note on this subject, as we find it in a subsequent part of the performance:

'Without this consideration and candour towards the early errors of genius, the Literary Fund would be of little or no service to the public. I do not recollect a single instance, where a youth, of high talents and great learning, committed to himself, without provision and without interest, has surmounted the first instigations of misery or despondence, to impeach the government of his country, if not the providence of God, by whom he seemed to have been totally abandoned. The apology is in the peculiar severity and cruelty of the case. And if the Literary Fund succour not those who would recover themselves from such situations, without the slightest retrospect or reference to former conduct, the Institution can be of little or no utility.'

From obvious motives of delicacy, the application of the Fund to particular cases of distress cannot be stated. Enough is indicated, however, to impress every reader with a conviction of the utility of the Institution; and to excite a wish that it may be enabled to dispense still larger and more efficient relief to a class of sufferers, whose distresses are peculiarly aggravated by cultivated sensibility, and honest pride of character.

Most of the poems annexed to this volume, consisting of Odes, Songs, and Addresses at Anniversary Meetings, from the pens of Mr. Pye, Mr. Boscawen, the elder Capt. Morris, Mr. Dyer, Mr. D'Israeli, Mr. Fitzgerald, &c., have already made their appearance in publications of the day. We therefore decline to give any particular account of them; and shall only remark farther, that the reader of this work will find both his taste and humanity gratified by the perusal of it.

The regulations of the Society, a list of its members, abstracts of sums received and distributed, &c. are annexed to this publication.

ART. VI. *Discourses on the Scriptural Doctrines of Atonement and Sacrifice:* With additional Remarks on the principal Arguments advanced, and the Mode of Reasoning employed, by the Opponents of those Doctrines as held by the Established Church; and an Appendix, containing some Strictures on Mr. Belsham's Review of Mr. Wilberforce's Treatise. By the Rev. William Magee, D.D. Senior Fellow of Trinity College and Professor of Mathematics in the University of Dublin, &c. 8vo. pp. 450. 9s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1801.

WHEN every species of argument, and the most dexterous management of language, are employed by a writer in the defence or elucidation of certain doctrines, it is with a very ill grace that he inveighs against the use of reason and sneers at the *rationalizing* Christian. Dr. Magee endeavours to prejudice his readers against all who have argued in opposition to the tenets of satisfaction and vicarious sacrifice, by representing them as 'confident and overbearing,' as 'vaunting of superior knowlege,' and employing 'machinations and pernicious sophistries.' We think that all such assertions and insinuations form a very unsuitable preface to a serious inquiry; and when controversialists employ hard names and intemperate language to aid the debate, the discerning part of mankind will suspect that they have something more in view than the mere advancement of truth. Being himself a man of considerable learning, Dr. M. needs not to be informed that individuals of great research, sagacity, and critical acumen, have opposed the doctrines for which he so strenuously contends; and he must be aware that his remark on the literary character of the present age is altogether irrelevant: 'The great vice (he says) is a presumptuous precipitancy of judgment; and there is nothing, from which the cause of Christianity, as well as of general knowlege, has suffered more severely, than from that impatience of investigation, and that confidence of decision upon hasty and partial views, which mark the literary characters of an age, undeservedly extolled for its improvements in reasoning and philosophy.' Supposing that this reflection were just, which we are by no means ready to allow, will it apply to the subject in question? Have only those who were impatient in investigation, and who decided on hasty and superficial views, been averse to the doctrine of atonement as commonly explained and understood? By such a philippic against modern precipitancy of judgment, the students of the Dublin University may be led to suppose that this tenet has been doubted only by some modern sciolists; and they may be surprized to find that their professor's contemptuous mention of its opponents in-

volves the condemnation of Newton, Locke, Lardner, and many others whose knowlege of science and of sacred and profane literature have rarely been equalled, never surpassed. After such a commencement of an important discussion, has Dr. M. any right to inveigh against 'confident and overbearing language?' His own preface certainly is written more in the character of the intemperate polemic, than with that liberality which the difference of opinion, known to subsist among learned and conscientious men, ought to inspire.

As far as knowlege and ingenuity of argumentation are concerned, Dr. Magee is fully adequate to meet his opponents in fair and lawful combat. We have not often seen his side of the question more ably sustained; and if he has not succeeded in convincing us, he has left impressions on our minds so much to the credit of his reasoning powers, that he ought to be *the last man in the world* to declaim against reason and philosophy.

The two discourses here given to the public were preached in the chapel of Trinity College, Dublin, on Good Friday, in the years 1798 and 1799. They occupy only 71 pages of this volume, while the Notes and Illustrations extend through more than 300 pages.

It is observed by Dr. M. that 'the doctrines of scripture are at all times best collected from the scripture itself;' and that hence a careful investigation of every word and phrase, employed there in reference to the subject in debate, is the only method of obtaining a clear view of the scripture doctrine of Atonement. As we cannot follow the Doctor through all his details and arguments, we shall confine our extracts from the first sermon to that part of it in which he notices the immediate language of scripture:

'We come now to the objections, which are drawn from the immediate language of Scripture, in those passages, in which the nature of our Redemption is described——and first, it is asserted, that it is no where said in Scripture, that God is reconciled *to us* by Christ's death, but that we are every where said to be reconciled *to God*——now, in this objection, which clearly lays the whole stress upon *our obedience*, we discover the secret spring of this entire system, which is set up in opposition to the scheme of atonement——we see that reluctance, to part with the proud feeling of merit, with which the principle of Redemption by the sacrifice of Christ, is openly at war—and consequently, we see the essential difference there is, between the two doctrines at present under consideration; and the necessity there exists for separating them, by the clearest marks of distinction——but to return to the objection that has been made—it very fortunately happens, that we have the meaning of the words in their Scripture use, defined by no less an authority, than that

that of our Saviour himself—*If thou bring thy gift to the altar, and there rememberest that thy brother hath ought against thee, leave there thy gift before the altar, and go thy way—first be reconciled to thy Brother, and then come and offer thy gift* *——now from this plain instance, in which the person *offending* is expressly described, as the party *to be reconciled* to him who had been *offended*, by agreeing to his terms of accommodation, and thereby making his peace with him; it manifestly appears, in what sense, this expression is to be understood, in the language of the New Testament.'

In the notes, this passage is thus illustrated:

' See *Theol. Repos.* vol. 1. pp. 177, 178. in which several texts are adduced, to establish this position——it is likewise attempted to maintain it on the general ground of the divine immutability: in virtue of which, it is asserted, the sufferings of Christ can produce no change in *God*—that in *man*, consequently, the change is to be brought about—God is therefore not to be reconciled *to men*, but men *to God*——H. Taylor also (*Ben. Mord. Apol.* p. 692–694) contends, "God is never said to be reconciled to the world, because he was never at enmity with it—it was the world that was at enmity with God, and was to be reconciled by coming to the knowledge of his goodness to them"—he adduces texts, similar to those above referred to, in confirmation of his opinion—and upon the whole peremptorily asserts, that "the New Testament knows no such language, as that God was reconciled to the world"——the same ground had been before taken by Sykes, in his *Script. Doctr. of Redemp.* (pp. 56. 426.) and in his *Comm. on Hebr.*—"there could be no need," he says, (on Hebr. vii. 27.) "of reconciling *God to man*, when he had already shewn his love to man so far, as to send his Son to reconcile *man to God*"——The argument adopted by these writers had been long before urged by Crellius, in support of the system of Socinus—and it deserves to be remarked, that all these writers have built their arguments, upon an erroneous acceptation of the original word, which implies *reconciliation*—Hammond, and after him Le Clerc (on Mat. v. 24.) remark, that the words καταλλαγῆσθαι and διαλλαγῆσθαι have a peculiar sense in the New Testament—that whereas in ordinary Greek Authors they signify to *be pacified*, and so *reconciled*, here on the other hand, in the force of the reciprocal Hithpahel among the Hebrews, is implied to *reconcile ones self* to another, that is to *appease*, or *obtain the favour of*, that other—and in support of this interpretation, they induce instances from Rom. v. 10.—1 Cor. vii. 11.—2 Cor. v. 20, and especially Mat. v. 24, in which διαλλαγηθι τω αδελφω must necessarily signify, *take care that thy Brother be reconciled to thee*, since that which goes before is not, that he hath done *thee injury*, but *thou him*—and this they derive from the force of the Hebrew word רָצָה transferred to the Greek verb, in the use of it by Jewish writers——in this sense of the words καταλλαττεσθαι and διαλλαττεσθαι, as applied in the New Testament, all the Commentators concur—see Rosenmuller and Wall on 2 Cor. v. 20. and Whitby on these words, wherever they occur—*Schleusner*, in his excellent Lexicon, confirms by several instances, the explica-

' * Matt. v.—23, 24.'

tion of the terms here contended for: and *Palairet*, in his *Observ. Philolog. in Nov. Test.* Mat. v. 24. maintains, that this use of the terms is not confined to the Jewish writers, transferring the force of the verb כִּפֶּר to the Greek expression, but is frequent among writers purely Greek—he instances *Theano in Opusc. Mytholog.* and *Appian. Alexandr. de Bell. Civil.* and explains it as an elliptical form, the words τὸν χαῖρον being understood.

'It is evident then, that the writers, who have founded their objection against the propitiation of the divinity, on the use of the word *reconciled* in the New Testament, have attended rather to the force of the term, as applied in the language of the translation, than in that of the original—but, even without looking beyond the translation, it seems surprising, that the context did not correct their errors, clearly determining the sense, not only in Mat. v. 24. as is shewn page 29, but also in 2 Cor. v. 19. in which the manner of reconciling the world *to God* is expressly described—viz. his *not imputing their trespasses unto them*, that is, his granting them forgiveness ——there are upon the whole but five places in the New Testament, in which the term is used *with respect to God*—Rom. v. 10, & xi. 15—2 Cor. v. 18, 19, 20—Ephes. ii. 16, and Col. i. 20, 21——whoever will take the trouble of consulting Hammond and Whitby on these passages, will be satisfied, that the application is diametrically opposite to that, for which the Socinian writers contend——there are but two places besides, in which the term occurs—Mat. v. 24. and 1 Cor. vii. 11.—in both of which the application is clear—and it deserves to be particularly noticed, that Dr. Sykes (*Script. Doctr. of Redemp.* p. 57) sinks the former passage altogether, and notices the latter alone, asserting that this was the *only one*, in which the word was used, not in relation to the reconciliation of the world to God—and this, after having inadvertently stated in the preceding page, that there were *two* such passages——this will appear the less unaccountable, when it is considered, that the expression as applied in Matthew, could be got rid of by no refinement whatever——but that the application in 1 Corinthians, not indeed in our translation which is not sufficiently explicit, but examined in the original, will appear as little friendly to his exposition, Hammond and Le Clerc have abundantly evinced by their interpretation of the passage.'—*

We may here remark that in one place only is the word *Atonement* employed, and that there it ought to have been translated *Reconciliation*; so that the N. T. does not justify Dr. M. in the use of his term. In ascertaining all the shades of meaning which the word *reconciliation* admits, commentators may differ: but Dr. M. has produced no text which asserts that reconciliation, in any sense, was effected in consequence of satisfaction being made to divine justice in Christ's sufferings; or that the guilt of the sinner was liquidated, as if it were a debt standing against him, by Christ's infinite righteousness.

* The reader will see that Dr. M.'s style is rendered inelegant and obscure by the want of proper punctuation; dashes being substituted for periods, colons, &c.

In

In Sermon II. *on Sacrifice*, Dr. Magee contends that in Heb. ix. 9—14. the death of Christ is represented 'as a true and effective Sacrifice.' This passage certainly compares the death of Christ with the sacrifices or offerings of blood according to the Mosaic ritual: but it does not represent his death as propitiating his heavenly Father, and rendering him placable; though it tells us that the operation of the blood of Christ was to be on us by "*purging our conscience from dead works,*" and points out moreover the light in which objects of comparison were viewed, by observing that "*the blood of bulls and of goats sanctifieth to the purifying of the flesh.*" In neither instance, is there the most distant allusion to averting the wrath of God by the act of sacrifice.

We readily admit that it is not easy to account for the origin of Sacrifices; yet this difficulty does not oblige us to grant that sacrifice must primarily have been a Divine institution. There is no declaration of this kind in the Scriptures; and Dr. M.'s remarks on the offerings of Cain and Abel throw no light on this subject. How little is he justified in the following conclusion!

'In short, Cain, the first born of the fall, exhibits the first fruits of his Parents' disobedience, in the arrogance and self-sufficiency of reason rejecting the aids of Revelation, because they fell not within *its* apprehension of right—he takes the first place in the annals of Deism, and displays, in his proud rejection of the ordinance of sacrifice, the same spirit, which, in later days, has actuated his *enlightened* followers, in rejecting the sacrifice of Christ.'

Neither the Jewish Historian, nor the author of the Epistle to the Hebrews, authorizes Dr. M. in giving such a view of the matter. Cain and Abel each produced a gift-offering to the Lord, suited to the nature of their respective property: Cain, in the character of an husbandman, offered the fruits or produce of the earth; and Abel, as a shepherd, made an offering from his flock. The former is not accused of self-sufficiency and arrogance: the particular nature of the offering is never stated as the ground of objection; and we believe this to be the first time that to the charges against Cain was added that of his being the *first Deist*. His father seems better intitled to this character.—The epithet *enlightened*, which Dr. M. affixes to Cain's 'followers,' should also have led him to describe Cain as the first of the sect of the *Illuminati*. To be serious.—The author of the Epistle to the Hebrews, who enters into the ground of the rejection of Cain's offering, does not advert to the nature of that offering, but to the disposition of mind in the offerer himself. Indeed, the occupation of Cain did not afford him the means of an animal sacrifice, and if one had

had been required of him, it must have been particularly recorded in the history of the transaction. We shall take no farther notice of this discourse, than merely to state its leading position; that 'SACRIFICE is a standing memorial of the death introduced by Sin, and of that which was to be suffered by the Redeemer.'

The Appendix, which contains an Account of the Unitarian Scheme, as described by Mr. Belsham in his Review of Mr. Wilberforce's Treatise, with occasional strictures on the leading arguments advanced in that publication, proves Dr. M. to be an able logician; who, while he glosses over the weak parts of his own system, knows how to attack whatever seems to be deficient in sound reasoning and consistency in that of the adversary. We shall not become parties in the dispute, but leave it to Mr. Belsham to make the rejoinder to his new opponent; who surpasses Mr. Wilberforce, by regarding Unitarianism as *more* than the half-way house between Orthodoxy and Infidelity.

ART. VII. *The History of Ilium, or Troy:* including the adjacent Country, and the opposite Coast of the Chersonesus or Thrace. By the Author of "Travels in Asia Minor and Greece" [Dr. Chandler]. 4to. pp. 167. 10s. 6d. Boards. Robson. 1802.

THE venerable author of this volume presents it to the world as 'a detached portion' of a work, which he has had in preparation for a considerable time, (although circumstances have occurred to prevent him from finishing it,) respecting the Plain of Troy; and we learn that the controversy, which has of late been conducted with so much eagerness on the subject of the Troas, between the partisans and opponents of the *Bryantine* theory, has induced Dr. Chandler to revise his own remarks, with a view to their publication, as soon as he has ascertained that the present performance meets a favourable reception. There can be little doubt that a book which bears the name of Dr. Chandler for its author will be a most welcome present to readers of classical taste, and to the friends of literature in general: but, independently of such a respectable sanction, we are convinced that the erudition and historical information, which are so extensively displayed in 'the History of Ilium,' will prove a sufficient recommendation of this treatise, and intitle its author to the thanks and approbation of the public.

We have recently had several occasions for expressing our opinion of the controversy between the faithful and the infidels, respecting the reality of the Trojan war;—a controversy which

which in itself appears to us idle and unprofitable. Since, however, it has brought and is likely again to bring before us the learned labours of Dr. Chandler, we consider it as amply repaying us for the toil of attending to so trivial a dispute; we no longer wish that the once celebrated city of Troy were yet standing; nor do we regret, with Æneas, that the fatal horse was admitted within its walls:

'*Trojaque, nunc stares, Priamique arx alta maneres.*'

We do not deem it necessary for us to give any decisive opinion on the question whether Troy had a real existence, or not: but we may justly observe that, if any one can be *fully* persuaded that Homer's account has *no* foundation in truth, he may easily become a convert to the system of Berkeley, and consider the visible works of the creation, and his very existence in a bodily shape, as the dreams and phantoms of his own imagination.

In 38 chapters, Dr. C. has comprized a concise history of Troy, from the earliest period to the time of Mahomet the second; deriving his information from a great variety of historians and other classical authors, who have in any way elucidated the annals and geography of that once famous country. This detail is the more valuable, as it is interspersed with occasional and seasonable remarks from the pen of the learned author himself.—We extract, as a specimen of the work, the 5th chapter; which treats of the evidence and credibility of the genuine story:

'*Of the Evidence and Credibility of the genuine Story.*

'The Greeks were solicitous to render the memory of an achievement, which continued for many centuries the most remarkable of any in their history, perpetual. They represented the various incidents on their public monuments and edifices in marble, on their gems, and drinking-cups. It was the favourite subject of their poets, painters, and sculptors. Several of their antient temples were rich in spoils of Troy; and some exhibited, for ages, tools, which had been employed in the siege; weapons, and armour of the warriors, which had been suspended as votive offerings on the walls, or deposited in their treasuries; and the real or pretended relics of some of the chieftains, who had been present, were prized like those of modern saints; far-distant cities making a boast of having them in their possession.

'The Ilias was generally received, both in Europe and Asia, as an indisputable record. Its testimony was confirmed by the annals and traditions of all the nations engaged in the war on either side; which jointly and separately demonstrated its main narrative not to be fiction or romance. Moreover, the posterities of several of the kings and princes mentioned by Homer remained, and were acknowleged as such for many successive generations. Another Ilium arose in the Troïa, to preserve the name and memory of that which had

been

been destroyed. The port principally used by the ships under Agamemnon continued, after their departure, to be called that of *The Achæans*; and the stations of the vessels of Achilles and Ajax Telamon were pointed out for ages: besides barrows, ruined cities, and other remaining evidences of the transaction. The knowlege of the principal events of the war and of its consequences would have been propagated and transmitted down both in Asia and Europe, though not to the same extent or with equal celebrity, if the Ilias and Odyssey had never been composed.

'Many Greeks and Trojans perished, fighting in the plain, in storming or defending the outwork of the camp or the city-wall. It was the usage of each people to consume the bodies with fire; but, while one heap of wood sufficed for the vulgar dead, and one pit received their ashes, a separate funeral, solemn and expensive ceremonies, a vast pile blazing across the Hellespont, and a barrow with a stela or stone-pillar on it, distinguished the fallen chief.

'The Greeks celebrated the obsequies of their slain, after the establishment of their camp, apart from it; those of the leaders generally near their quarters or on the shore of the Hellespont. *There*, Nestor tells Telemachus in the Odyssey, lay Patroclus and Achilles, Ajax Telamon, and his own son Antilochus. *There* also lay other renowned warriors, whose monuments, though we find little or no notice taken of them in remaining authors, may have continued extant, and been distinguished in after ages by antiquaries and the people of the country.

'The rites of the dead, as established by antient usage, inspired a reverence for places of sepulture, and prevented the memory of their owners, whose names were frequently inscribed on the pillars fixed in the ground over them, from falling suddenly into oblivion. Libations of milk, wine, honey, and the like, were poured on the sod or surface of the barrows; and other offerings were made, supposed to be grateful to the ghosts; which were believed to reside beneath, and to visit the altars placed near them. The heroes accounted demigods had temples, at which victims were slain before their idols. We shall find several of the barrows denominated long after from the warriors whose relics they covered; and giving names to settlements made near them, and maintained in good measure by the resort of people attending the anniversaries and festivals held at them, or casually visiting them from curiosity or from devotion. That of Achilles and Patroclus was called from the former, as the more excellent and illustrious of the two, Achilleion; that of Ajax, Æantion; and so on with others. Those of Protesilaus, Hector, and Memnon the rival of Achilles in posthumous fame and fable, were planted with trees to protect them from cattle and from the sun.

'The divine honours of Achilles were said to have commenced, before the departure of the Greeks from the Hellespont, with the horrid sacrifice of Polyxena, a captive daughter of Priam. Pyrrhus, in the sequel of the Ilias, declares, that he had seen his father in a vision, and that he required this offering. He is described as holding the victim with his left hand, placing his right on the barrow, and praying to Achilles, that the storm raised by him, to detain them until

until his mates should be gratified, might cease. Pyrrhus afterwards settled a colony in Epirus, where a dynasty or series of kings were named from him Pyrrhidæ, and where Achilles was worshipped under the title of Aspetos, *The Inimitable.*

'The homage paid to Achilles and Patroclus, to Hector, to Ajax Telamon, Antilochus and Protesilaus, at their barrows, by the circumjacent people of the Tröia and Chersonesus, was, at what time soever it began, of long duration; and, as will appear in the sequel, transmitted down from age to age, until it was finally extinguished by the establishment of Christianity in the Roman Empire. A native or a traveller in these countries, before that period, seeing the barrows remaining, and still objects as well of public as private regard, would not have believed it possible that the time would come when the former existence of Troy and of the Heroes would be called in question.

'Many additions were made in after ages to the Trojan story. Some were the inventions or embellishments of the poets, especially the tragic; some of artists, who employed their pencil or chissel on select portions of it; some were grafted on passages of the Ilias; and more were not countenanced or supported by, but irreconcilable with, Homer.

'The legendary tales current, as well among the European as Asiatic Greeks, concerning the heroes, and, in particular, Achilles, to whom I shall confine myself, were almost innumerable. I dwell not on such fables as the immersion of her infant son by Thetis in the river Styx, and his consequent invulnerability except in the heel; his education, not according to the Ilias, under Phœnix, but Chiron, who is there only said to have given him some instructions in the art of surgery; his concealment among women and the detection of him by Ulysses, contrary to Homer; his intended marriage with Polyxena, daughter of Priam; the meeting for its adjustment or celebration in the temple of Apollo at Thymbra; and his being treacherously slain there by Paris. Some of these are interpolations utterly undeserving of notice, had they not been occasionally adopted by writers; and in particular by M. Chevalier, in preference to the genuine story as delivered in Homer.

'Achilles, Antilochus, and Ajax Telamon, are represented in two episodes of the Odyssey, as companions in the Asphodel-meadow, the dwelling-place of the shades of defunct heroes, in the kingdom of Pluto. Agamemnon, who in the first of them, which was regarded as an interpolation by Aristarchus, addresses Achilles, might have added other topics of congratulation, had they been known to the author; such as the admission reserved for him among the Immortals, his marriage with Medea, (which is said to have been a fiction of the very antient poet Ibycus, who was followed in it by Simonides,) and his having a sacred Island, of which tale the origin is given by Pausanias on the joint testimony of the people of Crotona in Italy and of Himera in Sicily.

'The people of Crotona, says the relator, waging war with the Locri of Italy, their general, in an attack on the front line of the enemy, where he was told their patron-hero, Ajax Oileus (his image,

image, I apprehend,) was posted, received a wound in the breast. The Delphic oracle directed him to repair to Leuce, an island in the Euxine sea, to be cured by Ajax. On his return, he declared that he had seen Achilles, who resided there with Helen, Patroclus, Antilochus, and the two Ajaxes; and a message from Helen, which he delivered to the poet Stesichorus of Himera, by whom some reflections had been cast on her, probably in his *Destruction of Troy*, was, they said, the occasion of his writing a palinode or recantation.

'This island of Achilles, which is mentioned by Euripides and by many other antient authors, was formed by mud from rivers; and perhaps has since been connected with the continent of Europe. But, whatever it may now be, for the spot has not been explored, it was originally small, and is described as desert and woody, as abounding in living creatures, and much frequented by aquatic birds, which were regarded as the ministers of the hero, fanning his grove with their wings, and refreshing the ground with drops, as it were of rain, from their bodies. He was said to be visited there by Protesilaus, and several of his friends, who had been likewise released from the regions of Pluto; to *appear* sometimes; and oftener to be heard, playing on his lyre and accompanying it with a voice divinely clear. A long and narrow peninsula in the same sea was called *The Course of Achilles*; being the place where he was reputed to take his exercise of running.

'It does not often happen that antient fiction can, as in this instance, be traced to its source; and scepticism or incredulity is frequently the result of difficulty in discriminating true history from its alloy. Mr. Bryant has contended, that the two poems of Homer are mere fables, and that no such war, no such place as Troy, has ever existed. Having made a large collection of idle and absurd stories from different authors about Jupiter and Leda, and Helen (whom he will not allow to have been carried away from Sparta by Paris), and several other persons concerned, he declares, and nobody, I imagine, will dissent from a position of so great latitude, that "The account of the Trojan war, as delivered by Homer *and other Grecian writers*, is attended with so many instances of inconsistency and so many contradictions, that it is an insult to reason to afford it any credit."

'In the description, says the same learned person, of the siege of Troy and the great events with which it was accompanied, Homer "is very particular and precise. The situation of the city is pointed out as well as the camp of the Grecians," and various objects, "with the course and fords of the river, are distinctly marked, so that the very landscape presents itself to the eye of the reader.—The poet also" mentions "several" subsequent "events—in medias res non secus ac notas auditorem rapit—" all which "casual references seem to have been portions of a traditional history well known in the time of Homer, but as they are introduced almost undesignedly, they are generally attended with a great semblance of truth. For such incidental and partial intimations are seldom to be found in Romance and Fable." Who, on reading these remarks, would suspect it to

be the scope of the author, to prove the whole story of Troy as ideal as a fairy-tale?

'I will not enter here on a particular examination of the arguments used by Mr. Bryant on this occasion. Some of them I shall be obliged, though unwilling, to notice as we proceed. It may, however, be now mentioned, that among other novel opinions, for which I refer to his Dissertation, he maintains, that the ground-work of the Ilias, if it had any, was foreign to the country on which we are employed; that the history never related, but has been borrowed and transferred, to it; that in short, the original poem of Troy, the parent of the Ilias, was an Egyptian composition. I shall add a companion or two to this notable discovery. A disciple of Epicurus undertook to prove the Ilias to be entirely an allegory; and I have somewhere read, that it was not first written in Greek, but is a translation from the Celtic language.

'I subjoin the very different opinion of a respectable writer in the Antient Universal History on the same subject. "The name of King Priam will ever be memorable on account of the war which happened in his reign; a war famous to this day for the many princes of great prowess and renown concerned in it, the battles fought, the length of the siege, the destruction of the city, and the endless colonies planted in divers parts of the world by the conquered as well as the conquerors." "Truly, (says my author,) the siege and taking of Troy are transactions so well attested, and have left so remarkable an epocha in history, that no man of sense can call them in question."

A map of the Troas, and of the adjacent country, according to D'Anville, is prefixed to this publication; the whole of which is well calculated to introduce the classical student to a more intimate acquaintance with the Trojan plain, and to enable him to derive additional pleasure from the beauties of Homer, by acquiring a just and accurate knowlege of the country which that prince of poets has immortalized.

ART. VIII. *Supplement II. to the General Synopsis of Birds.* 4to. 2l. 7s. 6d. Boards. Leigh and Sotheby. 1801.

THIS second supplement to Dr. Latham's *General Synopsis of Birds* *, ushered into the world without a single prefatory line, confirms our idea of the general character of the work, and adds to the former rich accumulation of materials, without any intimation of reducing them to a regular and well compacted system. The descriptions of Vaillant, Bruce, Daudin, Sonnini, and other recent travellers, together with specimens transmitted from New Holland, &c. have furnished our indefatigable ornithologist with three hundred and seven species, or

* See M. R. Vols. lxv. lxvii. lxxi. lxxiv. lxxvii.

varieties,

varieties, since his last publication.—The volume is embellished with coloured figures of twenty-four kinds, of which the *Superb Menura* is, perhaps, the most striking:—but, as an account and drawing of this remarkable bird have lately appeared in the 6th volume of the Linnean Transactions, we shall confine our extracts of novel rarities to the *Plantain-eater* and *Sociable Grosbeak.*

'Genus XI. PLANTAIN-EATER.—Bill stout, triangular, the upper mandible elevated at the base above the crown; both mandibles dentated on the edges.—Nostrils in the middle of the bill.—Tongue entire, and stout.—Toes placed three before and one behind.

Musophaga violacea, Musafresser, *Schr. der Berl. Gesell.* ix. S. 16. taf. 1.

Royal Cuckow, *Lev. Mus.* pl. in p. 167?

'This curious and hitherto non-descript bird is nineteen inches in length, of which the tail is six inches and one third: the bill from the tip to the gape is one inch and an half, and very singularly shaped, especially the upper mandible, being nearly triangular, losing its attachment at the back part, where it is elevated, and hangs over the crown; the colour of the bill is yellow, growing red towards the end, and the edges of both mandibles are dentated; the tongue not unlike that of a *Parrot* in shape: irides brown: the top of the head is purple: lore violet: beneath each eye is a line of white; eye-lids purple: the neck, breast, and body violet; wings the same: the prime quills purple in the middle: the tail longish, cuneiform, obtuse, the same colour as the quills *: legs dusky black, and very strong.

'This beautiful bird is found on the plains near the borders of rivers, in the province of Acra, in Guinea, and is said to live principally on the fruit of the *plantain* †; is very rare, for notwithstanding every pains he could take, *M. Isert* was not able to obtain more than one specimen.

'I have ventured to assimilate this with the *Royal Cuckow* of the *Leverian Museum*, as it seems to agree in every point, except the disposition of the toes, which in that figure are placed two before and two behind. This however, may be reconciled, by supposing the bird capable of placing the toes in the two different positions at will, a circumstance observed likewise in respect to the *Touraco*: however, the assertion of *M. Isert*, that the toes were situated as his figure represents, ought to weigh with us, especially as he seems to be the only one who professes to have seen the bird.'

'Loxia socia, *Ind. Orn.* i. p. 381. 35.
Tisserin republicain, *Daud. Orn.* ii. p. 397.
Loxia, *Paterson's Cap.* p. 133. t. in p. 126.—*Bird and nest.*

'* *M. Isert* says the tail consists of nine feathers only, which might be the case with his specimen, but as we know no bird in which the tail feathers are not even in number, I should suspect that this bird also may have at least ten feathers, or even more.'

'† Musa paradisiaca et sapientum.'

'Size

'Size of a *Bulfinch:* length five inches and a half: bill and lore black: the general colour of the plumage rufous brown; beneath, yellow: region of the ear yellowish: tail short: legs brown.

'Inhabits the interior parts of the Cape of Good Hope, building in vast numbers, in one society, on the Mimosa Trees, uniting their several nests under one common roof; and it is said that not fewer than 800 or 1,000 form together one community; not perhaps that this circumstance happens in one year, for they are observed to add to the size of the nest from year to year, till the tree, unable to bear any further addition of weight, necessarily falls beneath its load, when the birds are in course constrained to search a new place of abode. Mr. Paterson, on examining one of these, found many entrances, each of which formed a regular street, with nests on both sides, at about two inches distance from each other. The material with which these birds build, is called *Boshman's Grass;* and the seeds of it said to be their principal food; but the wings and legs of insects have been likewise observed in the nests.

'M. Daudin supposes the Totty Grosbeak to be a variety, which I must leave for further investigation.

'This species not only is observed to make the group of nests on the Acacia Trees, but likewise on the Aloë Dichotoma, which grows to the stature of a tree of no inconsiderable size; for Mr. Barrow * mentions the circumstance of one which had steps cut out on its trunk, to enable a person to climb up to obtain the nest of these birds.'

Of species already noted or described in the Synopsis or *Index ornithologicus*, many are here again introduced on account of additional remarks, of various merit and importance, though generally calculated to stimulate the industry or gratify the curiosity of the naturalist.—The following trait of a Carrion Crow deserves to be quoted:

'The manners of this species are well known; but a singular anecdote of one of these has come to my knowledge, attested by Mr. Edwards. In March 1783, a *Crow* was observed to build a nest on the vane of the top of the Exchange at Newcastle, and the more remarkable, as the spindle on which the nest was constructed, being fixed to the vane, moves with it, and it appeared very singular to view it in windy weather, when the nest in course turned round to every point of the compass. A small copper-plate was engraven with a representation of the circumstance, of the size of a watch paper; and so pleased were the inhabitants with it, that as many of them were sold as produced to the engraver the sum of ten pounds.'

We are informed that the annual custom-duties paid for *Larks* at Leipsic amount to twelve thousand crowns, at the rate of 2½d. sterling for every sixty birds. In a country, however, in which many geese are devoured, we surely need not to be told that the business of a feeder of these birds is sometimes

'* Travels in South Africa, p. 393.'

considerable;—not, as Mr. —— had already procured a niche in the London Gazette, should Dr. L. have thrust him into another in his more durable quarto. *Sedet æternùmque sedebit infelix.*

The author justly disputes a common notion concerning the *Short-eared Owl:*

'In respect to the received opinion of its having the capability of erecting a single feather of the crown at will, the fact is much to be doubted; indeed it has a sort of tuft or series of several feathers running backwards, and springing out of a yellowish line above each eye, which goes over the crown of the head, and these tufts the bird erects mostly in a quiescent state, never much more than a quarter of an inch in height, and never so much as to be perpendicular; when alarmed, they are ever depressed.'

We wish that he had been equally sceptical with respect to the *fascinating* powers of the *Volatile Thrush;* or that he had, at least, cited his authorities for the alleged fact. To a rational inquirer, it is no great consolation to add that a bird which practises magic on a worm is, in turn, enchanted by a snake. Yet, if our progress through pages of monotonous description has not often been cheered or animated by the rays of criticism or philosophy, it has been as seldom repressed by the fooleries of fable.

In page 127, we meet with a manly avowal of a mistake relative to the *Grakle:*

'In this work *, it is mentioned from M. Buffon, that the inhabitants of the island of Bourbon having imported some of these birds for the purpose of destroying the Grasshoppers, the birds increased so fast, that after having destroyed the insects, they attacked not only the fruits, but young Pigeons, and became a greater scourge than the Grasshoppers had been before. We learn, however, that this assertion is not precisely the fact, and most likely M. Buffon had been misinformed; for M. Duplessin, who gave it as his opinion, that these birds might be useful to be introduced into that part of Spain situated towards Africa, by way of destroying the Locusts there, had been many years resident in the island of Bourbon, where he had seen those birds introduced, that indeed they have been much multiplied in that island, but so far from themselves being considered as a nuisance, the laws for their preservation are still in force.'

As writers of name had confounded the eggs of the *Goat-Sucker* with those of the *Cuckow*, it is properly remarked that the latter are smaller by one half, and very much disproportioned to the producing bird.

We are here enabled to lay before our readers some proof of the possibility of keeping *Humming-birds* alive, in a climate different from their own:

* Gen. Syn. ii. p. 459.'

'A young gentleman, a few days before he set sail from Jamaica to England, was fortunate enough to meet with a female Humming Bird, sitting on the nest and eggs; when, cutting off the twig, he brought all together on board the ship; the female became sufficiently tame, so as to suffer itself to be fed with honey, and during the passage hatched two young ones; however, the mother did not survive long, but the young were brought to England, and continued alive for some time in the possession of Lady Hamond. Sir H. Englefield, Baronet, and Colonel Sloane, both witnesses of the circumstance, informed me that these little creatures readily took honey from the lips of Lady Hamond, with their bills: one of them did not live long, but the other survived at least two months from the time of its arrival.'

May not the above little incident inspire some minor bard with a charming anacreontic?

The *Lesser-Crowned Pigeon* and the *Green Partridge* of the Synopsis are now proved to be only the male and female of the same species. It is also worthy of notice, because not generally known, even to sportsmen, that the female partridge assumes the horse-shoe mark on the breast, though later than the male.

That we may contribute to the publicity of Dr. L.'s invitations to brother ornithologists, we copy these two short passages:

'It may not be amiss again to remark the great uncertainty in respect to some of the species of Sandpiper, and in none more than the Ruff, of which we suspect many species to have been made during its advances to the adult, for the *male* does not gain the long neck feathers the first season, and afterwards only during breeding time: we have also had doubts whether our Equestrian Sandpiper may not be a young bird of this species: the same also of the Selninger and *striated* species; and in respect to the ash-coloured Sandpiper, it is probable that on a longer acquaintance, it may prove merely the young of the Knot. These are however hints only, thrown out for the sake of inciting others to a more strict investigation of the subject.'—

'Our reason for mentioning this bird again, is to request that naturalists will be more diligent than ever in regard to such birds, whose identity as species may be ascertained by dissection. We have in more places than one remarked the uncertainty in respect to the external appearance of birds, till arrived at the adult state. The Dun Diver, amongst others, has caused us to waver greatly; for naturalists having set this bird down for certain as a *female* of the Greater Goosander, and finding that some of these supposed females were endowed with the same conformation of trachea as the male adult, known to be such, doubt arose, whether, as there were both sexes under this livery, it might not be totally different in species. The fact however seems, that both sexes, for the first season at least, have the appearance of the Dun Diver, which the female retains throughout life, whilst the male gradually gains the beautifully white plumage

he is known by; but the distinguishing character of the windpipe, wherein he entirely differs from the other sex, will be detected at any age whatever.'

A copious and accurate index is subjoined to this Supplement; and the new articles are reduced, in 74 pages, conformably to the plan of the *Index ornithologicus*.—A catalogue of the Latin trivial names terminates the volume.

We should have felt peculiar satisfaction in assuring the public, that Dr. L.'s style possessed correctness and elegance proportioned to the extent and importance of his labours: but truth and candour compel us to acknowlege that, in the perusal of this single volume, we have detected more blemishes than room or patience will suffer us to reveal.—Of trailing and disjointed sentences, let the following examples suffice:

'When, however, the decision of the Vulture genus into real species may take place, is not for us to determine; the variety among individuals, from different periods of life, as well as the different appearances of those in a state of confinement, to what the plumage has when at large, cannot fail to create no small difficulty; added to that, very few travellers are naturalists in a sufficient degree to discriminate one part of nature from another; besides, the subjects in question being mostly extra European, we cannot wonder at being so long in the dark: let us however attempt all we can, with the hopes of some future day being able to arrive at greater precision; nor let any writer be ashamed of correcting his mistakes the moment he may be possessed of better information.'—

'In breeding time, the male Falcon is remarkable for its song, which it makes every morning and evening, and like the nightingale, not uncommonly even the night through; it sings in this loud tone for more than a minute, and after an interval begins anew; during its song, it is so regardless of itself that any one may approach; but in the intervals of quiet it is so wary as to take flight at the least suspicion; should the marksman shoot the male, the female will soon fall under his gun, as in the attachment to him, and calling every where with the most plaintive voice, it is so continually passing within gun-shot, that it is no difficult matter to shoot it; but in case the female should be shot first, the male does not testify so much attachment, for retiring to the top of some distant tree not easily approached, it does not cease to sing, but becomes so wary as to fly entirely away from that neighbourhood on the least alarm.'

A shorter, but more ungrammatical period than either of the above occurs at page 195.—'Its slow flight, on account of the length of its tail, make it not only easy to shoot, but in rainy or windy weather may almost be caught with the hands; there is little doubt but that this and the foregoing are the same.'—The plural is, in various instances, changed into a singular, and *vice versâ*, in the course of the same sentence.

We

We are told (p. 19.) that *the upper part of both* ARE;—(41.) that *the very tip of the feathers* ARE; (178.) that *the base of the feathers* ARE—that *the upper parts of the plumage* IS, &c. *The* is frequently redundant or vague, as, *from* THE *tip to tip —it builds* THE *nest*, &c.—and is occasionally suppressed with violence, as in the note of page 287, where we find, *knock them* AT HEAD—a phrase which savours rather strongly of *the blood.*—*Firstly* (82.), though strictly analogical, is not current English; nor can we consent to the revival of *therein, thereon, therefrom*, &c.—The expression *Of evenings*, which is a favourite with this author, is, at best, colloquial. When he asserts of the Guinea pintados (272.), that *they sometimes roost by* HUNDREDS OF EVENINGS, the arrangement would lead us to infer that their roosting is regulated by a term of evenings consisting of hundreds.

Didactic writing, it is true, seldom aspires to the heights of eloquence, but as seldom can it dispense with grammar, perspicuity, and legitimate phraseology.—Similar strictures, we apprehend, apply to more than Dr. L.; and the above minute remarks have been partly extorted from our pen by a certain negligence of composition, which we have observed to infect some of our recent and valuable publications in the different departments of natural history.

ART. IX. *Monographia Apum Angliæ*; or, an Attempt to divide into their natural Genera and Families, such Species of the Linnean Genus Apis as have been discovered in England: with Descriptions and Observations. To which are prefixed some Introductory Remarks upon the Class Hymenoptera, and a Synoptical Table of the Nomenclature of the external Parts of these Insects. With Plates. By William Kirby, B.A. F.L.S., Rector of Barham in Suffolk. 8vo. 2 Vols. 11. 1s. Boards. White. 1802.

To the institution of learned societies, subject as they may be to some objections, we frequently owe not only ingenious hints and partial disquisitions, but entire and valuable treatises. Under the pen of an active cultivator of science, ideas germinate and expand, a subject presents various points of discussion, one topic or illustration suggests another, and the intended contribution of a few pages swells into bulk and importance. We learn that,

'When the author of the following work first turned his attention to the English *Apes*, he had no expectation of meeting with half the number of species that he has now described; nor had he any other view, than to draw up a short paper to be read at the Linnean Society, and inserted, if deemed sufficiently interesting, in the Transactions of that learned body: but as he proceeded in his undertaking,

king, so much was to be said, it seemed necessary to introduce so many alterations, and such a number of species unexpectedly flowed in upon him from a variety of sources, that, instead of a short paper, he found he had collected materials sufficient for more than a volume: upon this he changed his original intention, and determined to submit his performance himself, not without considerable apprehensions he confesses, to the eye of the public.'

So multiplied are the kinds and diversities of living creatures which encompass our abode, that, without the help of classification, we should in vain attempt to register their forms, or transmit their history in language intelligible to posterity. Aided, indeed, as we are by this simple and luminous contrivance, yet the brevity and the various avocations of life, the limitation of our faculties, and the overwhelming extent of the subject, imperiously require the united efforts of many individuals for the composition of accurate and general systems of animated nature. While men and things continue as they are, nothing short of an extended division of labour can impart to the various provinces of natural history those amendments and details, which are still wanting to constitute a regular and interesting whole. Hence we observe with much satisfaction that the plan of monographies, so successfully pursued on the continent, begins to occupy the attention of British naturalists.

If the work which suggested these remarks be not perfect in all its parts, we are at least warranted in pronouncing it an ingenious approximation to an entire nomenclature of the British species of *Apis*, distinguished by entomological erudition and unwearied perseverance of research. Since varieties referable to sex, or to change of colour incident to age, may in some instances be noted as specific, and several kinds may have eluded observation, time may still be necessary to a complete extrication of the genus: yet we may venture to affirm that Mr. Kirby has added at least one-third to the usual catalogues, and has greatly facilitated the labour of future inquirers.

These general observations we would apply rather to the substance and matter, than to the form and manner, of the volumes now before us. A separation of the scientific details, from those of a miscellaneous and popular nature, might better have accommodated two distinct classes of readers. The author might even have enlarged with advantage on the more generally interesting topics, and have referred by cyphers, or running titles, to their respective articles in the nomenclature. Too many of the explanatory parts, also, are expressed in a language which is no longer generally understood. Indeed, we feel ourselves compelled, once for all, to enter our protest against that bristling host of Latin or Latinized auxiliaries, which

which Mr. Kirby has inlisted in his service; and which, while they give a harsh and motley complexion to his style, unavoidably repel every mere English reader. We deny not that the language of antient Rome is peculiarly favourable to neatness and precision of definition, and that our modern dialects do not always furnish us with terms equivalent to those which were invented by the Swedish naturalist or his disciples: but, as the study of nature is not now confined to those who have had opportunities of classical learning, the discussions which it involves should be conducted, as much as it may be possible, in the vernacular idiom; and, in most cases of exigency, some easy circumlocution might be found to supply the want of corresponding single terms. At any rate, why prefer *aculeus* to *sting*, *plicate* to *folded*, *corneous* to *horny*, *hirsuties* to *hairiness*, *incrassate* to *thick*, *sulcate* to *channelled*, or *furrowed*, &c. &c.? or why, in the course of one short sentence, insert five words which few ordinary readers can understand? (vol. i. p. 142.) '*The pollen they carry not only upon the scopa of their posterior tibiæ, but also upon their flocculus, and the hairs of their metathorax.*' Should Mr. Kirby allege that he destined his publication for the learned alone, however much we might regret the limitation of his design, we might still be allowed to inquire why he did not compose it wholly in Latin? Pure Greek or Hebrew would, in point of taste only, be more desirable than the present patch-work.

Let us now discharge the more grateful office of pointing out the valuable contents of these volumes.—Upwards of 90 pages (including the additions at the end of the first volume,) are allotted to the introductory remarks, which exhibit an historical view of the hymenopterous order of insects, and particularly invite to an examination of the methodical arrangements laid down by Fabricius and Linné. Notwithstanding the high character which the former has obtained in various countries of Europe, we cannot recommend the feeding instruments as certain and stable foundations of a general distribution. In a great variety of cases, they are too minute for convenient examination, and, after death, are usually to be discovered by dissection. Besides, unless a proposed method be decidedly superior to that which it professes to supersede, considerations of respect and expedience should induce us to abide by that which is established, and already familiar to our conceptions. In the present instance, the prior classification has not only the sanction of use, but rests on obvious and permanent criteria; and, like the British Constitution, it involves in its own elements the principles of extension and reform. Our learned monographer exposes, perhaps with anxious minuteness,

nuteness, the defects of the Fabrician system; and he justly observes of Gmelin that, while he attempted to blend the two modes of arrangement, he occasionally interposed essential characters of his own institution.

With respect to the formation of new genera, the entomologist may fairly claim what is daily granted to every prudent and cautious botanist:

'That inundation of non-descript species which, since the time of Linneus, has overflowed the European cabinets, renders it a work of charity to spare the entomologist the Herculean labour of going over the definitions of perhaps several hundred species before he can determine one. This can only be effected by the formation of new genera and families; and here, I think, a middle course ought to be steered between Linneus and Fabricius. The former having confessedly too few genera, and the latter having multiplied them beyond necessity, and mistaken the characteristics of families for the indications of genus. But, in the construction of genera, from what parts are we to draw our characters? With Fabricius, are we to confine ourselves to the *Instrumenta cibaria et antennæ*? Or with Linneus and his followers, are we to take them indifferently from any part that will furnish them?'

Mr. Kirby, we need scarcely add, answers the last query in the affirmative. In noticing, however, the inaccuracies and omissions of his predecessors, he is by no means blind to those of Linné himself; particularly adverting to his exclusion of the proboscis from most of his hymenopterous genera, to his assumption of distinctive marks from traits of economy rather than from natural specific characters, and to his inadequate definitions of the genus in question.

The first part of the work contains a synoptical table of the principal parts of the head, trunk, and abdomen of insects belonging to the *Apis* genus; definitions of the technical terms, according to the qualifications with which they are used in the sequel; and the critical remarks which were deemed requisite to their explanation:—but the best explanations are the plates, to which frequent references occur in the notes.

The object of the second part is to discuss the generic and family character of the *Apis* tribes. After having enumerated those natural marks which are common to the hymenopterous order in general, (thus avoiding much tedious repetition,) Mr. Kirby proceeds to assign the discriminations which, in his opinion, constitute two natural genera of the Linnéan *Apis*. The latter designation he restricts to those insects which have an elongate, slender, cylindrical, and inflected tongue; and he applies the term *Melitta* to such of them as have that organ short, flattish, for the most part acute, with a lateral auricle,

and not inflected. Then follows a list of the natural and artificial characters appertaining to each of these two divisions.—Our attention is next turned to a scheme of family distinctions, or relationship of species, according to natural affinities deduced from structure, habits, and economy. In conformity with this plan, *Melitta* and *Apis* are ranged each in two families, with their respective subdivisions. Insects of the second section of the first family of *Melitta* most commonly haunt the different species of *Reseda*, and, when pressed between the fingers, emit a powerful balmy odor.—For the gratification of our curious readers, we insert the note relative to similar facts; observing only that the list might be considerably extended, and illustrated by instances taken from the vegetable kingdom.

'I have often thought that if gentlemen, who amuse themselves with chemical experiments, would direct their attention to insects, it might lead to the discovery of some powerful medicines. The variety of strong scents, which these little creatures emit, is wonderful. I remember once, when I was walking with the ingenious Mr. Sowerby, we took a petiolated *Sphex*, nearly related to the *S. gibba* of Villars, (Ent. Eur. 3. n. 29.) if it be not the same, and to the *Crabro U flavum* of Hellwig, (Panzer. Fn. Germ. Init. n. 17. tab. 20.) and were much struck with the very stimulating effluvia of æther which issued from it, when slightly pressed. This insect is extremely common upon umbelliferous plants, and might with ease be collected in considerable numbers. Few entomologists are ignorant that a delightful odor of roses is diffused by *Cerambyx moschatus*; this is sometimes so copious as to fill a whole apartment. Many *Melittæ*, besides those of this family, have a strong scent, in some approaching to that of garlick or onion. The same remark may be extended to a number of *Ichneumons*, which emit a most powerful, but at the same time not very agreeable, scent. A most singular mixture of the odor of spices, with something indescribably fetid, proceeds from *Staphylinus brunipes*, Fab. The universal use of *Meloe vesicatorius*, the most active of stimulants, is a sufficient and well-known proof of the powerful effects which insects are capable of producing upon the human frame. A circumstance which ought to encourage us to inquire further into the virtues of which they may be possessed. The ancients seem to have had recourse to more than one species in medicine, for the *Heliocantharus* or *Scarabæus solaris*, which was probably the *Scarabæus pilularius* of Linnæus, is said to have been a remedy in quartan agues. See Scapulæ Lex. under Καρδαρος.'

Mr. Kirby's own observations on the families and their subdivisions, which constitute his two genera, are occasionally illustrated or enlivened by judicious quotations from the writings of others, especially of Réaumur, to whom entomology lies under many and great obligations.—This part of the work likewise confirms the truth that the same habits are not only

common to the individuals of a species, but to several species taken collectively; closing with some sensible directions for distinguishing genuine *bombinatrices*, or humble-bees.

The third part, which occupies the first 29 pages of the second volume, presents mere definitions of 111 species of *Melitta*, and of 110 of *Apis*.

Particular descriptions of these species, notes of their synonyms, of their natural habitations, of the cabinets in which they are preserved, and miscellaneous critical remarks, alike refractory to analysis and abridgment, compose the varied tissue of the remaining section. A single article may at once serve as a sample of the whole, and present a singular novelty to those who have not perused the work:

'MELITTA NIGRO-ÆNEA.

'M. nigra, fulvo-pubescens; capite anoque atris; abdomine subhirsuto, nigro æneo.

MUS. *D. Marsham, Smith, Drury* Apis, n. 43. *Haworth, Trimmer, Sowerby, Lathbury, Kirby.*

Long. Corp. Lin. 6—7.

Hab. Barhamiæ, tempore vernali frequens satis. Mas in *Salicum* amentis.

DESCR. Acul.

CORPUS nigrum, pube densâ fulvâ.

CAPUT. *Facies* atro hirsuta, *Genarum* barba fulvescit. *Vertex* calvus. Spatium inter *Oculos* interjectum latum.

TRUNCUS. *Thoracis* pubes rufa. *Squamulæ* piceæ. *Alæ* subhyalinæ, nervis testaceis, costali interiore nigro. *Anastomosis* ferruginea. *Pedes* nigri, supra ex pilis fusci, subtùs tamen pili fulvescunt. *Femorum* lana pallida. *Tibiæ* poticæ scopâ densâ fulvâ undique obsitæ. *Scopulæ* ferrugineæ.

ABDOMEN ovale, supra nigro-æneum, fulvescente-subhirsutum, ano atro. *Venter* convexus, per fascias hirtus.

Var. β. minor, facie, circa basin antennarum, hirsutie sordidè fulva.

Maris *Facies* ut in varietate *β*. *Antennæ* thoracis longitudine. *Maxillæ* basi obtusangulæ. *Pedes* fulvo-hirti. *Abdomen* ovatum.

Var. β faciei hirsutie rufescenti.

Obs. *Abdominis color nigro-æneus, tum hujus tum præcedentis speciei, ex pilis, qui tamen seorsùm fulvescunt, exoritur; pilis enim abrasis, abdomen fit nigrum.*

'This insect approaches nearer to the *Apis cunicularia* of Linneus, than any other English species with which I am acquainted: but it is sufficiently distinguished from it by its black head and anus, and the form and colour of its abdomen. It is remarkable that the black abdomen should receive, from the tawney hairs which cover it, a nigro-æneous tinge.

'Upon this insect I discovered, last spring, a very singular animal, which seems appropriated to the present genus. I had previously more than once observed upon other species something that I took to

be

be a kind of *Acarus*, which appeared to be immoveably fixed just at the inosculations of the dorsal segments of the abdomen: at length, finding three or four upon a specimen of *M. nigro-ænea*, I determined not to lose that opportunity of taking one off to examine and describe; but what was my astonishment when upon my attempting to disengage it with a pin, I drew forth from the body of the *Melitta* a white, fleshy larva, a quarter of an inch in length; the head of which I had mistaken for an *Acarus*. How this animal receives its nourishment seems a mystery. Upon examining the head under a strong magnifier I could not discover any mouth or proboscis with which it might perforate the corneous covering of the abdomen, and so support itself by suction; on the under side of the head at its junction with the body there was a concavity; but I could observe nothing in this but a uniform, unbroken surface. As the body of the animal is inserted in the body of the *Melitta*, does that part receive its nutriment from it by absorption? My memory does not furnish me with any instance of this kind: but have the *vermes intestinales* any mouth?

'After I had examined one specimen I attempted to extract a second, and the reader may imagine how greatly my astonishment was increased, when after I had drawn it out but a little way, I saw its skin burst, and a head as black as ink, with large staring eyes and antennæ consisting of two branches, break forth, and move itself briskly from side to side. It looked like a little imp of darkness just emerging from the infernal regions. My eagerness to set free from its confinement this extraordinary animal may be easily conjectured. Indeed I was impatient to become better acquainted with so singular a creature. When it was completely disengaged, and I had secured it from making its escape, I set myself to examine it as accurately as possible; and I found, after a careful inquiry, that I had not only got a non-descript, but also an insect of a new genus, whose very class seemed dubious. From its mode of life it ought to belong to the Linnean genus *Ichneumon* in the *Hymenoptera*; but it has neither stemmata, nor four wings, and its palpi are not at all similar to those of the insects of that class. From its elytra, (which, however, are placed in a very extraordinary situation, being fixed to the sides of the thorax,) it ought to be a *Coleopterous* insect, but it seems to possess but little of the general habit and character of that class: perhaps it had better be considered as *Hemipterous*, but till an opportunity occurs of examining more specimens it would be rash to speak too positively upon this head.

'After I had sufficiently examined my animal, I made a rude sketch of it, its antennæ, &c.; and it was well that I did, for upon leaving home for some weeks, when I returned, it was so miserably mauled by the great enemy of the entomologist, the *Acarus destructor*, that I should have been unable to give a tolerable idea of it, since both elytra and antennæ were gone: enough of it, however, still remains to shew what it was. I have not as yet met with another.'

A scientific Latin description of this parasitical insect is subjoined in a note.

To

To the first of these volumes are annexed 14 copper-plates, more remarkable for their distinctness than elegance, displaying the various external parts on insects described in the text, and accompanied with the proper references and explanations. Volume II. concludes with a neat index of trivial and synonymous names, and four handsome plates, containing coloured representations of several of the more remarkable species of *Melitta* and *Apis*.

We are unwilling to dismiss this article without observing that Mr. Kirby is not one of those cold mechanical inquirers, who scrutinize the structure and habits of insects without ascribing to their Creator benevolence and wisdom:—but, while we commend the becoming piety of the clergyman, we could wish that it had inspired less clumsy and indistinct sentences than the following:

'It is true, in our present degenerate state, fallen from original knowledge as well as virtue, having lost that genuine *Clavis Naturæ*, which it is probable our primogenitor Adam possessed; by the use of which, in the creature he could discern the intention of his Creator: in this world and its productions, seen in their various affinities and economies, read his deity and attributes, his wisdom and will, and things spiritual: so that to him, the page of creation was a revelation by natural symbols and types, as the Jewish religion was by instituted, and the Christian by words, the arbitrary signs of ideas; and in consequence of this knowledge, was enabled to impose upon the creatures, names adapted to their several natures. I say, in our present degenerate state, we cannot attain to this wisdom of the protoplast, for now "we know only in part."

We are not disposed, also, to acquiesce in what we conceive to be a misrepresentation of the language of an ingenious brother naturalist. Speaking of Mr. Bracy Clarke's paper on the Genus Oestrus, in Vol. III. of the Linnéan Transactions, Mr. Kirby says, ina note to page 131, vol. ii. 'I would be understood to say this with the exception of his note containing the account of *Oestrus Cuniculi*: the opinion advanced in which, as militating against a superintending Providence, I think highly objectionable.' On turning tothe condemned passage, we could discern nothing like heretical pravity; and, at most, it amounts only to two simple *conjectures*, which can never militate against a superintending Providence. Mr. Kirby is too conversant in the walks of zoology, to deny that one race of animals seems to be adapted for preying on another; and he is, doubtless, too sound a theologian to assign bounds to the operations of Omnipotence. The great Being, who imparts to matter organization and life, may surely recall them at his pleasure; and, for reasons unknown to us, may allow certain modifications of existence to endure only for a season—or, as Pope has inimitably expressed it,

"Who

" Who sees with equal eye, as God of all,
A hero perish, or a sparrow fall,
Atoms or systems into ruin hurl'd,
And now a bubble burst, and now a world."

ART. X. *Observations on the Cancerous Breast.* Consisting chiefly of Original Correspondence between the Author and Dr. Baillie, Mr. Cline, Dr. Babington, Mr. Abernethy, and Dr. Stokes, &c. By Joseph Adams, M.D., Physician in the Island of Madeira. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Longman and Rees. 1801.

IN this tract, Dr. Adams defends his theory of the origin of Cancer in Hydatids, against Dr. Baillie, Mr. Cline, and some other eminent anatomists. The idea is very ingenious, and is supported with considerable ability: but we confess that we are not entirely convinced. At least, however, the inquiry will be of service to medicine, by promoting the study of the natural history of Hydatids.—Dr. Adams observes of them:

'The most simple idea of animal life we can well form is that of the hydatid, consisting only of a membranous bag containing a transparent fluid. It might be doubted, whether such should be called animals, were it not that those found near the kidnies of sheep have been seen to move. They are also described with a head and neck. Those in the human body give no other proof of life, than a contractile power.

'Such a conformation is more simple than that of plants, most of which have not only a power of converting air and water into their own substance, but parts differently formed for various functions; and many of them even generative organs, with a distinction of sexes. But in the human hydatid nothing is found, excepting a hollow membranous sphere, filled with a coagulable fluid, which, for its support, has no other power than that of absorption, and which multiplies without any generative organ that can be discovered.'

Mr. Cline's objections are stated with so much clearness and precision, that we shall extract them:

'I have often met with such cells in these tumours, containing different fluids, sometimes like serum, and in others of a dark bloody appearance. But so far as I have hitherto observed, they did not give me the idea of being living hydatids; that is, a perfectly circumscribed membrane without any communicating vessels from the surrounding parts. Hydatids are not a part of the animal in which they are found, any more than the worms in the intestinal canal. In some diseased testicles there are many hydatids: but this is not the testicle that becomes cancerous. The true scirrhus is not an hydatid testicle.'

In answer, Dr. A. says that the true carcinomatous cysts cannot easily be distinguished from fat: but they are separated, according

according to him, by a fungus; and he thus explains his conceptions of their growth and decay:

'In examining a carcinomatous breast amputated in an early period, we meet with little or no fungus. By an early stage I mean, before the disease, how long soever it may have existed, has made any considerable progress. If the progress has been sufficient to exhibit any superficial marks, by a circumscribed puckering of the skin, we find the fungus usually confined to the space between the carcinomatous hydatids and the surface; but if the disease has made considerable progress, so that the whole breast is much enlarged, it is then that we find various compartments in the fungus filled with hydatids in different states of their progress towards maturity and death.

'Hence it seems as if the hydatids had a period of existence short in proportion as their powers of multiplication are greater. Till they multiply (supposing them in a situation that affords them a nidus for it) they appear more or less in a torpid state, occasionally growing, and at other times stationary. But the death, or perhaps even the approach towards death, of any individual or number of carcinomatous hydatids instantly becomes a stimulus to the surrounding parts to generate this fungus, which, by separating the dead from the living, produces in different parts of the same breast two different actions at the same time. One is a kind of ulceration, or more commonly continual sloughing of the fungus which incloses the dead hydatids; the other is the formation of new fungus to protect the living hydatid, and in many instances, if not in all, the fungus becomes itself a nidus for the generation as well as protection of future hydatids. That it does so for hydatis cruenta, when such are the contents of a cancerous breast, we have every proof that our senses can furnish. For in these cases the fungus is always much softer and spreads faster, if the integuments are removed by the knife, caustic, or ulceration, and the whole appearance when removed is similiar to the description of those hydatids which have escaped from the uterus, adhering to a spongy substance resembling or serving as a placenta.'

The author supposes the carcinomatous to be of the same nature with those which constitute steatomatous swellings, but to have the peculiar power of stimulating the part in which they grow, to the formation of the fungus usually called scirrhus.

Dr. Adams has taken occasion to state a very singular fact relating to Cancer; that it is 'only terrible in a cold climate:'

'In this country, (Madeira) though most of those cases have been exhibited to me as a stranger, I have seen only two in an occult, and one in an ulcerated state. They were all of above twenty years standing and rarely attended with pain. In tropical climates the disease is scarcely known. But however mild it may be here when left to itself, it is said not to be less fatal after an operation than in England. The most experienced Portuguese surgeon mentions the tragical consequences of amputation. I have been informed of two instances in Barbadoes, in which the event proved equally calamitous. I believe in both the disease had been brought from Europe.'

The author's view of the nature of this disease leads him to propose the removal of the whole glandular parts supposed to be scirrhous, when it has been resolved to perform an operation: but he is more inclined to destroy the life of the hydatids, or to render the juices of the part unfit for their support. With a view to both these ends, he proposes inoculation for the cow-pox; and he advises also arsenical applications externally. In the other points of treatment, he agrees with the later writers on this disease. The internal use of the nitrous acid is particularly recommended, to resist the farther growth of hydatids.

On a subject of so much importance, every attempt at improvement is interesting. We fear, however, that Dr. Adams has not made any real discovery concerning the nature of Scirrhus and Cancer; and if his opinions be thoroughly examined, they may perhaps appear to be only a revival of the animalcular theory of diseases, under a more specious form: but, whatever may be the judgment of our medical friends on this subject, we can assure them that the pamphlet deserves their serious attention.

ART. XI. *The Bardic Museum, of Primitive British Literature, and other admirable Rarities:* Forming the Second Volume of the Musical, Poetical, and Historical Relics of the Welsh Bards and Druids: Drawn from authentic Documents of remote Antiquity; (with great Pains now rescued from Oblivion,) and never before published: Containing the Bardic Triads; Historic Odes; Eulogies; Songs; Elegies; Memorials of the Tombs of the Warriors; of King Arthur and his Knights; Regalias; the Wonders of Wales, &c.: With English Translations and Historic Illustrations. Likewise the ancient Tunes of the Bards; to which are added new Basses, with Variations for the Harp, or Harpsichord, Violin, or Flute. By Edward Jones, Bard to the Prince. Folio. pp. 112. 1l. 5s. Sold by the Author at No. 3, Green-Street, Grosvenor-Square. 1802.

THE patriotic zeal and laudable industry of Mr. Jones have produced another volume*, to commemorate the genius and attainments which illustrated the antient ages of his nation. We do not discover, however, that the pieces here rescued from oblivion are very important. The poems represented as most antient wear features which, indeed, favour the claim, for they are rude, wild, and almost prosaic; poetical only as they express feelings forcibly, and describe scenes vividly. They display no imagination, no figures of speech, nor embellish-

* See Rev. Vol. lxxiv. and Vol. xvii. N. S. p. 6.

ments

ments of any kind. They are simply historic narratives.—Before we proceed to give examples of them, let us attend to some observations made by Mr. Jones, in his elaborate introduction, on the music of his remote ancestors:

'Something now remains to be said respecting the national Music of the aboriginal Britons, or Welsh, which has been transmitted down to us by tradition from time immemorial, and is still the favourite amusement of the natives. Some few of these Tunes have been taken from manuscripts; but all the original Welsh poems are transcribed, and translated from ancient manuscripts. The following tunes, songs, poems, and history, are the result of some years research and labour, collected, and adjusted at intervals. The greatest part of these melodies I have committed to writing from hearing them sung by the old people, and from their being played by the most venerable Harpers, in North Wales; and it is very fortunate that I did so, because most of them are since dead. Being a native of Meirionydd, where our national customs are best retained, and where I generally used to pass my summers; being also well acquainted with most of the popular Welsh airs from my infancy, from having been brought up in the musical profession, and having always had a predilection for native customs; I may perhaps, have the advantage of my contemporaries on this subject, or at least I hope I shall be found adequate to the task which I have undertaken, in rescuing some of the Bardic lore from being irretrievably lost.

'I have given these native Melodies as genuine as possible; and have added new Basses, and Composed Variations to several of them: those Tunes to which I have not given Variations, are arranged two or three together, in the same key, so that they may be played to follow each other, as little Lessons.

'These old airs differ much in structure from the modern music, and I found it very difficult to adapt regular Basses to them, according to the strict rule of counterpoint, as their fundamental harmonies are often ambiguous, and even the keys are sometimes but obscurely indicated by the wild modulation. However, as melody is the soul of music, and harmony a secondary consideration, or an assistant; I have generally preferred steering by the original melody, and to aid it with a characteristic harmony, in its own native manner, and the conveniency of the Harp, in preference to that of a complicated modern bass, too regularly managed; because, that uneven transition, and abrupt simplicity, seem best calculated to convey their original bold character.'—

'The Dignity of style, the Originality, the Simplicity, and the Variety displayed in several of these Melodies, are perhaps superior to those of any other National Airs, when we consider the early times in which many of them were composed.'

Our Bard next states the reasons which induced him to undertake the present work:

'Some account of the circumstance which led to this collection, will perhaps be expected. Seeing with regret, the rapid decrease of performers

performers on the Harp in Wales, with the consequent decline of that elegant and expressive instrument, as well as of our National Music, and Poetry; gave me the first idea of reviving the ancient *Eisteddfod*, or Congress of Musicians and Poets, for a contest of skill in their art; for the sake of recovering some of the ancient Bardism and Song; which meeting I caused to be convened at Corwen, in Meirionethshire, about the year 1788; where I gave a premium to the best Musician, another to the best Vocal Songster, another to the best Poet; and the following year it was held at Bala: and these meetings have since been annually continued, in some part or other of North Wales, under the patronage of the *Gwyneddigion Society.*'

He then furnishes us with a piece of information which is not less well founded than curious:

'The sudden decline of the national Minstrelsy, and Customs of Wales, is in a great degree to be attributed to the fanatick impostors, or illiterate plebeian preachers, who have too often been suffered to over-run the country, misleading the greater part of the common people from their lawful Church; and dissuading them from their innocent amusements, such as Singing, Dancing, and other rural Sports, and Games, which heretofore they had been accustomed to delight in, from the earliest time. In the course of my excursions through the Principality, I have met with several Harpers and Songsters, who actually had been prevailed upon by those erratic strollers to relinquish their profession, from the idea that it was sinful. The consequence is, Wales, which was formerly one of the merriest and happiest countries in the world, is now become one of the dullest.'

Being of opinion that religion has no necessary alliance with gloom, and being friends to innocent and refined pleasures, we cannot help regretting that they are extinct among our honest sequestered fellow-subjects; and that those rude teachers, who are so much in vogue in the principality, have declared implacable war against these harmless pastimes, which were so creditable to the taste of the simple inhabitants.

As savouring most of antiquity, we lay before our readers the memorials of the tombs of the warriors; respecting which the author observes:

'The following ancient sepulchral verses commemorate the Heroes of Britain, who had signalized themselves prior to the middle of the seventh century: they are written in the ancient Metre, called *Englyn Milwr*, or the Warrior's Song of triplet stanzas, and are attributed to *Taliesin*; but some of them evidently appear to be much older, as they record some Chiefs who flourished in the third century; and seem to have been composed by different Bards, and at different periods. They give an account of about two hundred Heroes, and a few distinguished Bards, &c. who are often mentioned in fragments of our history: therefore, I have selected several stanzas of them, and given a literal translation in English, as a specimen of one of the many valuable, and authentic documents still preserved in the Welsh

language,

language, which would have greatly tended to elucidate *Camden's Britannia*, had he been more acquainted with our Welsh antiquities.

'These oracular memorials appear to have been a part of those Oral Traditions which anciently were recited by the Bards, at the public *Gorseddau*, Tribunals, or provincial Congresses:

> "But heed, ye Bards, that for the sign of onset
> Ye sound the ancientest of all your rhymes,
> Whose birth tradition notes not, nor who fram'd
> Its lofty strains." *Mason's Caractacus.*

Which custom, of celebrating the worthiest heroes, &c. has been handed down to us from the remotest time; and when writing became more general, these traditional verses were committed to writing by the succeeding Bards, and others.

'Memorials of the Tombs of the Warriors.'

The Tomb of TUDAIN, FATHER OF THE MUSE,
On the summit of BRYAN AREN.
The wave breaks on the territory of IOLO;
The grave of DYLAN lies in *Llan Beuno*.

The grave of GWYDION, the son of DÔN,
In the marsh of DINLLEU, under stones
Enveloped with trefoils: lateral pillars
Support his fine-formed limbs!

He whose grave is in MAES-MAWR,
Proud was his hand in grasping the wrathful blade;
It is the Tomb of BELI, son of BENLLI, the PRINCE.

To whom belongs the square grave,
With the four stately stones on its corners?
It is the gave of MADOC, the fierce knight.

After the murky flowing of gore, after exulation,
And great triumphs with the sharp-edged spears;
In LLANHELEDD, is OWAIN'S grave.

The grave of ALUN of DEMETIA, is at TREVRED;
He would not retreat from the battle:
The son of MEIGEN, his birth was a blessing.

The three graves on the heights of CELVI,
The *Awen* tells me, are the tombs
Of CYNON with the rough eye-brows;
The tomb of CYNVAEL; and the tomb of CYNVELI.

After wounds and bloody tumults;
And after arraying the squadrons of white steeds:
This is the grave of CYNDDYLAN.

The grave of a beautiful Warrior, by whose hand
Fell many a combatant, ere he became silent beneath the stones;
LLACHAU, the son of RHUN, is in the Vale of CAIN.

He

He whose grave is on yonder cliff;
His hand was the foe of many! it is
TARW TRIN; (the bull of conflict:) mercy be to him!

The grave on LLETHR Y BRYN,
Many that do not know, ask to whom it belongs:
It is the grave of COEL, the son of CUNOBELIN.

The grave of one of magnanimous fame
Is in the HIGH TYDDYN;
Low is his dank bed:
'Tis the grave of CYNON, son of CLYDNO EIDDYN!

Yonder grave, on the mountain's brow,
Is his who led the armies to glory:
The tomb of *Hyrmael* the generous, son of *Hywlydd.*

The grave of *Elidyr*, the courteous,
Magnificent in prosperity; the Chieftain
Of *Gwenevwr*, with glory crowned, the mighty hero of the shout.

The tomb of *Owain*, the son of *Urien*, is girted with
Four stones, at Llan-Morvael:
And in Abererch lies *Rhydderch the Generous.*

The grave of the horse; and that the Hero's grave:
Yonder is the tomb of *Gwgawn*, with Ruddy-sword;
Unknown is the tomb of *Arthur.*

The grave of *Gwalchmai*, in Peryddon,
Where flows, by intervals, every ninth wave—
In Llan Badarn is the monument of *Cynon.*

Hear, yon wave of heavy murmur, dashing on
The grave of *Dysgyrnin*, son of *Dysgyveddod*;
Sorrowful the bosom, from the weight of sin.

The tomb of *An ap* Llian, in the mountain of Euas.
The furious lion of battle, *Ambrosius*,
Had for chief Diviner, *Merddin Emrais.*'

It may be collected from the song addressed to Gwalog, or Galgacus, that it was composed at a subsequent period: but we should have been glad if our Bard had informed us where he procured it, and if he had attempted to ascertain the scenes of the battles mentioned in it.

In the specimens of the poetry of the middle period, we do not see that culture has made any great progress. In order to admire these poems, however, the reader must be born in the principality, and understand the language; then, no doubt, he would discover that there is in the very words, and in the metrical niceties, a charm which warrants the praises of Mr. Jones.

We cannot except from this character the compositions of Hywel, son of Owen Prince of Gwynedd. We know not whether the present agrees with the antient bard, in the preference which he gives to his own country over England, as appears in the commencement of one of his poems, here thus translated:

'Fair foam-crown'd wave, spraying over the sacred tomb of Rhuvon the Brave, the chief of princes, behold this day. I hate *England*, a flat and unenergetic land, with a race involved in every wile. I love the spot that gave me the much desired gift of mead, where the seas extend in tedious conflict; I love the society, and numerous inhabitants therein, who, obedient to their Lord, direct their views to peace; I love its sea coast, and its mountains, its city bordering on its forest, its fair landscape, its dales, its waters, and its vales; its white sea-mews, and its beauteous women. I love its warriors, and its well-trained steeds; its woods, its strong holds, and its social domicil. I love its fields, clothed with tender trefoils, where I had the glory of a mighty triumph. I love its cultivated regions, the prerogative of heroism; and its far-extended wild; and its sports of the chase, which, Son of God! have been great and wonderful. How sleek the melodious deer, and in what plenty found!'

The easy flow, the playful turn, the elegance, and the poetic spirit, which distinguish the compositions of David ap Gwylim, are striking. He flourished about the end of the middle period, and he appears to be the first pride of the British muse. If he lives not to fame, it was not because he wanted genius, or the refinement and culture requisite in the walk of poetry which he chose, but because he wrote in a language which was approaching to the period of its extinction; and which, containing few compositions of great interest, (with the exception of his own,) would never become the object of the study of the learned.

His poems on the fair Morvudd should never be compared to the sonnets of Petrarch; though they far excel the latter in ease, exhibit more true taste, and are more within nature. David was a fine genius, who owed little to letters; while the superior learning of the Italian proved injurious to his compositions. Whether the love of the swain of Avignon was real may well be doubted, but events proved that the passion of the British Bard was not feigned. His Morvudd was the theme of one hundred and forty-seven of his poems; 'yet he was unsuccessful; for her father married her to a hunchbacked old man, who had more wealth than the man of song. But he contrived to carry her off twice from her husband, which brought him into much trouble.'

We were surprized to find this Bard's religious poems so rational, and displaying so little of the Romish superstition:

no saint is addressed; and the blessed Virgin, though often mentioned, is never invoked.

Among the 'Philosophical Observations, Precepts, and Adages, of the antient British Sages,' we find the following: the last line of which, we hope, our fair readers will consider only as a compliment to the fascination of their eloquence:

'The Eagle's strength is in his beak.
The Unicorn's strength is in his horn.
The Serpent's strength is in its sting.
The Ram's strength is in his head.
The Bear's strength is in his paws.
The Bull's strength is in his breast.
The Dog's strength is in his teeth.
The Boar's strength is in his bristles.
The Queest's strength is in her wings.
The Lion's strength is in his tail.
A woman's strength is in her tongue.'

'The wholesomest flesh of wild beasts, is the Roe-Buck.
Of tame beasts, the Hog.
Of wild fowls, the Partridge.
Of tame fowls, the Hen.
Of sea fish, the Flounder, or flat fish.
Of fresh-water fish, the Trout.'

'Three things prosper in the Sun;
Wheat, Beas, and Acorns.
Three things the miser gets for his riches; pains in heaping; anxiety in keeping; and sorrow in losing.
The three delays on the highway:
A nut; a fair maid; and a squirrel.'

'No speed, without a steed.
No valour equal to man's.
No glutton equal to the cormorant.
No herbalist equal to the goat.
Nothing so tractable and stately as the steed.
No melody so pleasant as the nightingale's.
No ravage equal to that of fire.
No obstruction equal to that of water.
No lightness equal to air.
No weight equal to earth.
No infinity equal to nothing.
Nothing good, but *God.*'

This volume is decorated by a frontispiece representing a blind Welsh harper playing to some peasants, and is concluded by 52 pages of engraved music.

ART. XII. *The History and Antiquities of the County of Leicester.* By John Nichols, F.S.A. Edin. & Perth. Vol. III. Part I. Containing East Goscote Hundred. Folio. pp. 560. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Nichols.

WE announced the former vols. of Mr. Nichols's History of Leicestershire in M. R. vols. xxi. and xxxii. N. S. and are now required to attend to the *first part* of vol. 3. which of itself makes a very handsome folio, as the price and number of pages sufficiently indicate. In a long advertisement is found a list of queries, 74 in number, formerly addressed to the Nobility, Gentry, and Clergy, by Mr. Nichols, the perusal of which will give the reader a complete idea of the various materials of which a county history is composed. It contains also an account of the forces of the county, as they stood in the year 1628, and concludes with Burton's valediction to the reader in 1641; part of which, as containing an antiquary's vindication of the study of antiquities in general, and of those belonging to the several districts of our country in particular, we shall transcribe:

"Some first strike at the main, holding it unfit that a book of this nature should come in publick. What their reasons should be I never yet could learn. For myself, I was altogether unwilling to the setting it forth; not for the matter or subject, but for my own insufficiency, it requiring a more judicious head. But that it is fit that a work of this kind should be published, I must needs assent thereto, and truly say, that if all the shires were illustrated in the same manner, much light and benefit would arise thereby. They perhaps distaste that truth should be discovered; *sed magna est veritas, et prevalet.*

"In discovering of titles and tenures, I have been exceeding wary not to prejudice any in the least degree; and for those few genealogies inserted, I have ascended no higher than might stand with truth; neither have I endeavoured to wrench or screw any into a family but what were justly issuant.

"And what I have spoken of any, I have related it sincerely; imitating therein Leandro Alberto in his Description of Italy, Mr. Lambarde, Mr Camden, Mr. Carew, and others; not with an intention of soothing or fawning, for I ever hated base and servile flattery; neither have I any such cause, for that I have means sufficient to my own content; neither have I any relation or dependency upon any —I am free.

"But sith their humour is to live in obscurity and blindness, let them nuzzle themselves still in their own ignorance, die in darkness, be buried in forgetfulness, and receive that doom which Henry of Huntingdon imposeth upon their like, which hereafter followeth.

"Next I have been taxed, for that, having taken upon me the profession of another study, learned and profitable, I have yet addicted myself to the study of Antiquities, terming it an over-curious search-

ing

ing after things past without profit, led for the most part by conjectures and uncertainties.

"To them first I answer, that the study of the laws I have not neglected, though the practice thereof I have discontinued, as not having an able body (as in the Preface I said) to support the laborious pains thereof, or to endure the extremity of heat and cold occasioned by long travail (otherwise sound and healthful); as also not having a spirit apt for such contentious proceedings, and therefore may well say with the Poet,

"Non sum ego perversus, nec amaris litibus aptus,
Mitis enim et senior, Pieridumque comes;
Otia me requiesque juvant, quæ magna negavit
Roma mihi; redeo, cultaque rura placent."

'Where I may also say with the same Poet:

"Me focus, et nigros non dedignantia fumos
Tecta juvant, et fons vivus, et herba levis:
Sit mihi verna satur: sit non doctissima conjux;
Sit nox cum somno; sit sine lite dies."

"But for their misconceit of this worthy study of Antiquities, and me a lover thereof, I must say with Sidonius Apollinaris, "Qui non intelligunt artes non mirantur artifices;" but the most judicious well know what the study is; and as Mr. Camden truly said, "Studium sanè plusquam difficile, in quo quantopere sudandum, ut nemo ferè sentit, sic nemo facilè credit; nisi qui et ipse aggressus fuerit." But surely they would be somewhat mollified, if they would but consider the true character thereof; which is, the recovering of that was almost perished, the renewing of old and obsolete, the bringing up of Truth from the cave of Ignorance and Envy, the restitution of errors to true knowledge, of lameness to uprightness, of wrong to right, of darkness to light, of dead to life; these then being the effects, who justly can except against it? I must need say, that where pregnant proofs cannot be had, that conjectures may well be made. For as Sebastian Munster, in his Preface to his Cosmography, dedicated to the Emperor Charles the Fifth, well said, "In Antiquitatum annotationibus conjecturâ potiùs quàm certitudine nitamur oportet, ubi veritas se ipsam manifestè non probat, quibus conjecturis usi sunt B. Rhenanus et Bilibaldus Pirkheimerus in suis descriptionibus Germaniæ." The like saith Livy, "Antiquis in rebus si quæ veris similia pro veris accipienda." To make an apology for that which need not, is but in vain: but for conclusion, there is no science whatsoever which is not beholden to this noble study, especially the knowledge of the Common Laws; witness the old Year-Books, the Reports of the grave and reverend Mr. Keilwey, Mr. Plowden, the Lord Dyer, the Lord Coke, to whose Preface to the tenth part I refer thee for farther satisfaction.

"Some have excepted at the inserting of Histories, as having no relation to Antiquities; but they are much deceived, shewing small judgement in depriving her of one of her chief companions, as appeareth by her definition made by Tully: "Historia," saith he, "est testis temporum, lux veritatis, vita memoriæ, magistra vitæ,

nuncia Vetustatis." The knowledge of which Aristotle long ago held in such price, that, as he saith in his Politicks, "Eos qui historias ignorant, semper pueros esse, et proinde ab omni reipublicæ administratione submovendos." But for conclusion of this I can see no other, than what Henry of Huntingdon long since said to Alexander bishop of Lincoln, "Historia præterita quasi præsentia visui representat, futura ex præteritis imaginando dijudicat; habet quidem et præter hæc illustres transactorum notitiâ dotes, quòd ipsa maximè distinguat à brutis rationabiles; bruti namque homines et animalia, unde sint, nesciunt, patriæ suæ casus et gesta ignorant, immo nec scire volunt, quorum homines quidem illis infeliciores judico, quia quod bestiis ex creatione, hoc illis ex propriâ contingit inanitione, et quod bestiæ si vellent non possint, hoc illi nolunt cùm possint, quorum mors et vita sempiterno dotanda est silentio."

"Others do challenge me for delineating descents and pedigrees, holding them altogether impertinent to the former; but these men must know that the study of genealogy is the right eye to the study of histories; for who can read with judgement, or consider with understanding, when he is altogether ignorant of whom he reads? Besides, how necessary it is to know the stem of our ancestors, I refer them to the assertion of Michael Eitzinger, who saith, "Qui parentum majorumque suorum memoriam negligunt, illi brutis comparantur, quæ ortus sui partus ubi adoleverint protinus obliviscuntur, quare ne sicut equus et mulus fierent, quibus non est intellectus, genealogias certissima infinitatis argumenta posteritati commendent." And to the like opinion of Hugo de Barcinona, in his Commentaries upon Esdras, saying, "Ille verè doctus et eruditus est, qui potest ostendere originem genealogiæ suæ."

Each subdivision and place of note within the hundred of East Goscote has all due attention paid to it; the parish churches have their pictures drawn; the seats of gentlemen are neatly delineated; representations of antiquities and fac-similes of antient hand-writings are exhibited: and ample transcripts are made from monuments and tomb-stones.

After some introductory notices relative to the hundreds of East and West Goscote, which were united in one district till the taxation of 1346, and an enumeration of the townships in each, the historian commences with the rectory of *Allexton*; and, proceeding regularly, he finishes with the vicarage of *Wymeswould*. We cannot regularly go through a review of this formidable pile; and our readers must be satisfied if we present them with a few of its materials.—The chapter on Barrow upon Soar includes a long history of the family of Beveridge, with a memoir of Dr. Beveridge, Bishop of St. Asaph; succeeded by a section on Natural History.

To our extracts from the former volume relative to the Herricks of Beaumanor, we shall now add the following anecdotes relative to the same family:

"Lady

'Lady Herrick is dressed in a close black gown, richly ornamented with lace, and fine ruffles turned up close over the sleeves; a large twilled ruff; over her head a black hood, closely laced in front, thrown open, yet hiding her hair; a watch in one hand, in the other a prayer-book; and at her side hangs a feathered fan. This portrait is dated "July 27, 1632, ætatis suæ 54;

"Art may hir outsid thus present to view,
How faire within no art or tongue can shew."

'Of the time of this religious lady's death, or of the place of her interment, we find no memorial. Her youngest child was born in 1615; and in the year following, being then resident in London as a town-house, and at Richmond as a summer retreat, she wrote the following affectionate letter to her husband, whom business had at that time called to Beaumanor:

'Sweet hart, I could not let so fet a messenjar pas me as hee did you. I houp you remember Mr. Votier's Godli Use of Prayer everi morning and evening, with all your compani. As you love God, leave it not undone; it shall bring a blessing on you and yours. God knows hou short our time shall be on earth, as wee see daly fearful exsamples to put us in mind of our last end. Mr. Wadup the goldsmith went to Brestol well, and brought hom a ded corpse; and one of our nebars at Richmond went out to milke her kine, as well as ever she was in her life, and melke two kiue, and sodenly fell downe ded, and never spacke more. O God, grant we may ever be preparid, as living this houre, and dying the next! Sweet hart, a littel afore you went your journi, I tould you that I must nedse take one into the hous to bring up the gerls, which you very wilenly consented to that I should have one at Michelmas; but so it is hapened, that she that was with my sister Hickes to bring up Bes Nowel is com from my sister, and will not stay, because Bes Nowel is so headstrong that she cannot rule her. My sister Hickes sent me word of hur by sir GorgeWrite, how fet a woman she was for me to breed up my gerls; and I knowing it of my own knolege to be so, I houp you will not be angri with me for it: God, that knows my hart, knows I was never loufter to offend you in all my liefe than I have bine within this halfe yeare; and so I houpe ever I shall be. If you should bord them forth, they would cost you £14. a yeare at the least, and save nothing at home; beside, they will never be bred in Religion as at home, and weare out twise so many clothes as at home. All things considered, this is the best corse. Mr. Voitier came to me, and tould me the parish and hee would make you a fare pue afore my pue; but they hard you would goo away, and they would be louft to make it for Mr. Willams. I wil'd them to goo forward with theare good intent. I houp in God you would never leave this hous while I did live; and I beseeche God I may never live to gooe out of it e'en from the bottom of my harte.

'Commend me to all our friends: I must not forgite my love to Will. Wee are all in helth. I leave you to his protection, who is abel to kepe you al.

'Sweet hart, Mr. Teri is in possession in that offes at the Custom-hous; but what my lord will have of him, he knoweth not yet. Your true and faithful wife tel death, JOANE HERICKE.

'From London, the 22 day of August [1616]."

'All that we know of lady Herrick after this period is by a letter of her eldest son, April 26, 1619; and another from her niece Julian Noel in 1621; and that she was 54 when her portrait was painted in 1632.

'Of his family sir William himself thus speaks:

"Upon Thursday the 6 day of May, 1596, I was marrid to my wife, in a church at the lower end of Bow-lane; being the daughter of *Richard May*, of *May in Surrey*, esquire, in the 38th year of Queen Elizabeth's reign; whom God grant long to reign over us. Much joy together! Amen. 1596.

1. "Upon Thursday the 18th day of August, 1597, my wife was brought abead of a son at 1 o'clock afternoone in the day-time, whose name I purpose shall be *William*; Mr. William Skipworth and my brother Baptist Hicks his godfathers, and Mrs. Dorrythy Wright the younger his godmother; whom I pray God to bless with lounge life, and make him a good man, and send us comfort of him, the 39th of this queen's reign. My nurse must have of me 2*s*. 6*d*. a week. She dwells at Petersham near Richmond.

2. "Wednesday the 7th of February, 1598, and the 41st of the queen's reign, betwixt 2 and 3 o'clock in the morning, it pleased God to send me another son, who was christened by the name of *Robert*; my brother Robert Herick, my cozen Mr. Simyon Turner, and my sister Hicks, godfathers and godmother; and christened him the Wednesday following, being St. Vallentin's day. God bless him! He is nursed at Ham beyond Richmont. I must give 2*s*. 4*d*. a week for him.

3. "Sunday the 25th day of May, 1600, at 6 o'clock in the morninge, my wife was brought a-bead of a therd son, who was christened the 8th of June in St. Foster's parishe church in Foster-lane; my brother Richard Aulsworth, and my brother Tho. Bennit, and Mrs. Waiste, gossips. He was nursed at Highgayte, by Lylley, for 2*s*. 6*d*. a week.

4. "Monday the 3d of May, 1602, my wife was brought a-bed of a fourth son [*Thomas*], betwixt 12 and 1 o'clock in the morninge; Mr. Allderman Bennit, and Mr. Thomas Harrison of Branford, and my mother Mrs. Mary Maye, his godfathers and godmother. He were nursed at Petersham at 2*s*. a week, lived not longe, but died there at nurse, and buried in the church.

5. "Thursday the 6th day of May, 1603, being the same day king James came first to London, from Theobaulds to the Charter-house, about 8 o'clock in the evninge, my wife were brought abead of a daughter; Mrs Elizabeth Blincket, and Mrs. Hudson, and sir David Foulis, gossips, who named her *Elizabeth*; and were nursed at Higate at 2*s*. 6*d*. a week, but lived above a year, and dyed there, and were buried at St. Panker's church in the feeld by my cozen Toby."

Monu-

Monumental inscriptions occupy a greater space in this volume than ought perhaps to have been assigned to them: but we are occasionally induced to smile at their singularity; though, as Dr. Johnson says, "a man ought to be serious over the grave." A play on words and a peculiar quaintness distinguish the old epitaphs.

In the chancel of the church of Barrow on Soar is the following inscription on the tomb of Theophilus Cave:

"HERE IN THIS GRAVE THERE LIES A CAVE:
WE CALL A CAVE A GRAVE:
IF CAVE BE GRAVE, AND GRAVE BE CAVE,
THEN, READER, JUDGE I CRAVE,
WHETHER DOTH CAVE HERE LYE IN GRAVE,
OR GRAVE HERE LYE IN CAVE:
IF GRAVE IN CAVE HERE BURY'D LYE,
THEN, GRAVE, WHERE IS THY VICTORY?
GOE, READER, AND REPORT HERE LYES A CAVE
WHO CONQUERS DEATH, AND BURYES HIS OWN GRAVE."

On a stone in Long Whatton church-yard, is another not less curious:

"William Allt, late of Kegworth, who was minister of the Gospel for upwards of 30 years; of which, the latter part of his time, he was pastor of his own chapel in Sileby, in the county of Leicester; who departed this life August 4, 1779, aged 60 years:

"Here lies the body of William Allt:
Some say he was without a fault;
And others say, there's none had more;
But he says, 'Jesus has paid my score:'
So, be they many, or be they few,
They're all forgiven; and this is true."

This volume, or part of a volume, is embellished with 75 copper-plate engravings, which considerably add to its value.

ART. XIII. *The Crisis of the Sugar Colonies;* or an Enquiry into the Objects and probable Effects of the French Expedition to the West Indies; and their Connection with the Colonial Interests of the British Empire. To which are subjoined Sketches of a Plan for settling the vacant Lands of Trinidada. In Four Letters to the Right Hon. Henry Addington, Chancellor of the Exchequer, &c. 8vo. 5s. Hatchard. 1802.

THIS pamphlet is the production of no common writer, and is intitled, in every point of view, to no common notice. A residence of many years in the West Indies has enabled the author to discuss every part of his subject with great perspicuity; and much experience, good principle, and sound judg-

ment, are displayed in his advice; on which imperious circumstances now stamp a peculiar interest. The perilous situation of our sugar colonies, in consequence of the French revolution and the late French expedition, is proved to complete demonstration; and a strong ground for alarm is most clearly stated.—The observations here presented to us were written, and most of them printed, before we had received any intelligence of the operations of the French forces at St. Domingo; and subsequent events have given the greatest sanction to the writer's arguments and predictions. He coincides with the opinion which we have always maintained on this point, on authority which we conceived to be worthy of the utmost reliance, that of the late highly respectable Bryan Edwards; and he gives his reasons for thinking that the French expedition against the negroes of St. Domingo, though in its commencement it might display favourable circumstances in the eye of a superficial observer, must be ultimately disastrous. Contemplating a general contest between France and negroe-freedom in the West Indies, the author thus delineates the nature of the warfare:

'To speak of St. Domingo alone: an island containing at least 45,000 square miles *, and half a million perhaps of people, is to be subdued! The time usually spent in West India conquest would not suffice for an unobstructed march across its openest territory. It abounds in natural fastnesses, in passes formidable to an invader, in woods hardly penetrable, in mountains which the panting European would find inaccessible, even if disencumbered of his arms. Here then war is not likely to be soon at the end of its journey.—Its operations must be multiform, extensive, laborious, and long protracted.

'If to reduce the whole interior country to effectual submission, will be a tedious as well as an arduous work; to fix its subjection permanently, must be far more so: to the incalculable difficulties and hardships of war between the tropics, must be added its European extent and perseverance.

'But when we consider the *new enemy* to be encountered, these obstacles, great and unprecedented though they are in themselves, swell into a far greater and less superable magnitude.

'To the sickly troops of the invading army, would be opposed men entirely exempt from the debilitating influence of the climate, men to whom the yellow fever is unknown, who are accustomed to endure the severest labour under a vertical sun, and who neither sicken from the excessive heat, nor the occasional humidity, of the atmosphere.

'* Geographers differ greatly as to the extent of St. Domingo; Guthrie describes it to be 450 miles long and 150 broad; Mr. Edwards, in his history of that Island, page 122, makes it only 390 in length, and 140 in breadth.—I have followed the latter estimate, but with a large deduction for the great irregularity in the breadth.'

'While

'While the French soldier would sink with fatigue, and contract perhaps a mortal disease, by an ordinary European march, the negro rather exhilarated, than oppressed, by the solar blaze that exhausts his opponent, at least equally robust with him, and far more agile by constitution and habits, would advance or retreat the same distance as matter rather of recreation than toil, and with a rapidity of which the other is in that climate quite incapable.

'While the white soldier must be maintained by imported provisions, which cannot without great difficulty and expence be conveyed to him far from the sea-coast, the latter would find in the most interior parts of the island, and even on the tops of the mountains, enough of vegetable food to support his hardy nature, and hold it independently of all the chances of war. The soil itself is his inexhaustible magazine; rapidly producing for him by the briefest and easiest culture, and even by its own spontaneous gift, the esculent plants, and fruits, on which he well knows how to subsist, especially now that the fertile cane lands have for the most part been given up to the culture of provisions.

'Accustomed to live on a mere pittance, and to endure nakedness as well as hunger, it is scarcely possible to reduce him by cutting off his supplies; he may therefore leave disease and waste to fight his battles, and find in retreat, and delay, certain expedients to frustrate the most powerful invasion.

'The very surface of the country presents infallible means of harassing and destroying an invading army by a desultory system of war.

'By the impetuous torrents that rush in the rainy season from the mountains to the sea, every West India island is broken into innumerable deep ravines, or as they are called in the English-creole dialect "*guts*," so that in general it is impossible to proceed a mile without meeting one of these guts or ravines. Their sides are often too steep to be descended with ease, and are besides usually covered with trees and bushes; the high roads are therefore continued across these difficult passes by embankments or bridges above or below; which it is impossible for a horseman, and even difficult sometimes for a foot passenger unused to the country, to cross.

'It is obvious how this circumstance might be improved, not merely for the purposes of ambuscade, but, by the easy expedient of breaking down the bridges and embankments, to stop the advance of an enemy; indeed it is far more difficult to preserve these roads, than to destroy them; as they are frequently broken up by the torrents in the rainy season, and not repaired without considerable labour and expence.

'Even where such difficulties as these do not present themselves, as in the more level parts of the islands, or where the mountains do not rise very abruptly, there are still obstacles of a very formidable nature to the advances of an invading army. In the uncultivated part of the country, the underwood is so dense and thorny as not to be easily penetrated, except by the negroes, whose dexterity in passing through the woods by the help of their cutlasses or hatchets is admirable; and even in the cultivated ground, from the high growth of the canes, coffee, and most other tropical productions, an army could

could not advance out of the beaten roads, without clearing their way by pioneers almost at every footstep, and being continually exposed to ambuscades.

'To employ cavalry in such a country is obviously a hopeless expedient; as for the reasons assigned, the roads might easily be destroyed so as to make the passage of a troop of horse impracticable. Their restitution by the hands of white men would be no easy task; and, in some places, perhaps, the labour of an army for a day would not repair a breach that might be made in a single hour. Besides that in passing these roads the troops would be continually liable to be flanked by ambuscades, they would, by being mounted, present fairer marks to a lurking enemy, whom, when discovered and routed, they could not pursue with effect. The fate of a party of the St. Vincent's volunteers who went out on horseback to attack the Charribbs in the late war, sufficiently illustrates this remark.

'The places of retreat for the negroes, when defeated, would, of course, be the woods and mountains; where it would not only be impossible for horse, but even extremely difficult for European infantry to follow.

'The superiority of a negro in that climate is in no point more remarkable than in the dispatch and facility with which he ascends and descends the steepest sides of the mountains, without falling or losing his breath; a faculty which, no doubt, he chiefly owes to long and early habit in the cultivation of those high and steep acclivities in which the sugar Islands abound. By the same habit, greatly assisted by his not having been accustomed to the restraint of shoes, and the consequent flexibility of the muscles of his toes and feet, he is not incommoded with the slippery surface of the mountain ridges, though washed with almost continual rains; and where a white man would find it very difficult to walk steadily, the negro, to the surprize of strangers, is seen descending with a quick step, with a bundle of grass or wood on his head, without once losing his footsteps or dropping his load.

'It is on the mountains, that the runaway negroes who abound in the English islands elude the pursuit of their masters: it was on the mountains, that, by making a wise but obvious use of the advantages which I have mentioned, the Maroon Negroes of Jamaica established and long maintained their independence; and it was principally the inaccessibility of such retreats, that so long baffled our efforts to conquer a handful of Charribbs in St. Vincent's.

'It would be idle to insist much on the general advantages of such a native source of defence, for how many instances are to be met with, even in the history of Europe, of a rude and undisciplined people, destitute of all other warlike resources, presenting successfully the barrier of a mountainous country, to long continued efforts made by powerful nations to subdue them?

'But for the reasons already assigned, this barrier is far more formidable between the tropics than in the temperate climate of Europe; nor had the Welch, Swiss, or Corsican mountaineers, the same constitutional superiority over their invaders, that the negroes of the

sugar

sugar islands possess in their own mountains over the European soldier.

'When, on the whole, I consider merely the physical disparity between these hardy children of the sun in their native climate, and troops from the temperate zone, I could almost compare the supposed contest to a battle in the water between a seaman and a shark, or in the air between an aëronaut and an eagle.'

We must not forget to estimate also the difficulty of making those who have tasted the cup of freedom return to the cruelest servitude, and bare their backs to the whip of the negroe-driver. From all these considerations, the author inclines to believe that St. Domingo will become the cradle of the liberty of the African race, as it formerly was that of their bondage in the western world: and the consequences of the freedom of so vast a body of negroes, as affecting the state of slavery in our own islands, it is not difficult to conjecture.

Supposing, however, that the French should ultimately succeed in forcing the blacks to resume their former yoke, or were they even to make a compromise with them, so vast a military establishment in St. Domingo and other islands must be kept up, that Jamaica and the rest of our colonies must be incessantly open to invasion, and in case of war would all soon pass into the hands of the enemy.

Having stated the dangers to which our West India property is thus exposed, the author proceeds to suggest the measures which wise policy calls on us to adopt in this crisis. After having recommended a strict neutrality to be maintained by us in the present dispute between France and her colonies, and shewn the narrow policy of the planters with respect to negroe-slavery, he observes; 'that the only practicable foundation on which the future security of the sugar colonies can be built, is that of meliorating the condition of the great mass of the people, and converting them from dangerous enemies into defenders; and this is only to be done by the exercise of the legislative authority of Parliament. If, through mistaken principles of policy or deference for an active and powerful party, that right, and let me also call it, that duty, shall be still neglected, the slave system will continue to be a source of internal weakness and danger, till revolution or foreign conquest become the well merited result.'

Englishmen and Frenchmen have both had melancholy experience of the rapid mortality of European troops in the West India islands; and, if necessity should force the republic to cultivate the friendship of the negroes, and policy should lead them to organize negroe-troops for that part of their dominions, we must pursue the same course: since, as this wri-

ter

ter remarks, 'to contend with the republic between the Tropics, without a large portion of the same home-made belligerent force, would be like beating up for recruits against Cadmus, who could raise armies in a moment from the ground.'

Reprobating the slave system on political as well as on moral considerations, the author's next object is to warn the minister against founding a new slave-colony in our recently acquired island of *Trinidada*. He advises, on the contrary, that a portion of the rich and unopened soil of this island be sold at a low price, or granted freely to all who will undertake, as the condition of the tenure, and on peril of reverter to the crown, to settle and cultivate it by the labour of *free negroes*.—The commercial capacities of Trinidada are here highly estimated. Hurricanes having never been known to extend so far to the southward as this island, the author points to the deep and capacious bay of Paria as a safe harbour for our ships; while its situation will afford a most useful and important *entrepôt* between the manufactures of Great Britain, and the traders of Spanish America.

We repeat that facts and considerations of great importance are brought together, in various striking points of view, in this pamphlet; and we hope, for the sake of our country, that it will not be written and published in vain: since the alternative which this writer sets before us in the West Indies is *immediate reform, or a speedy loss of dominion.*

ART. XIV. *Gleanings in Ireland*; particularly respecting its Agriculture, Mines, and Fisheries. By R. Fraser, Esq. Author of the General View of Agriculture and Mineralogy of the County of Wicklow.* 8vo. 3s. Nicol. 1802.

IT is well known that the inhabitants of Ireland possess, in the geographical position, figure, and soil of their country, many natural gifts highly propitious to the pursuits of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce; and that, if a general attention were paid by them to the due improvement of their physical advantages, they must inevitably become a rich and prosperous people. With the laudable and patriotic view of stimulating his fellow-subjects, in this part of the united kingdom, to such exertions as Providence requires and their own interest demands, Mr. Fraser submits the present tract to their consideration; which contains the result of attentive research, combined with judicious reflections; and which, in point of composition, atones for the little defects which we were sorry to ob-

* See Rev. for Dec. last, p. 360.

serve

serve in the first part of the Wicklow report *. We sincerely hope that his endeavours will be successful; and that the people of Ireland, profiting by his advice, will exert themselves to rival the opulence of Great Britain, by making their fields, their mines, and their seas, the sources of accumulating wealth, power, and enjoyment.

The possible value of Ireland, to herself and to the empire at large, will be clearly seen in such a statement of her natural productions and domestic resources as is here exhibited. Mr. F. first examines her mines and minerals, next her soil and agriculture, and lastly her coasts and fisheries. In materials for the purposes of architectural improvement, Ireland is also rich:

'None of the white statuary marble has indeed been found, but a great variety of variegated and veined marbles, of great beauty and utility. The most common are the black, with white veins, and in figures resembling sea-shells, found in the counties of Kilkenny and Cork. Yellow, which takes a fine polish, and which might be useful in works of sculpture, is found near Church Town, in the county of Cork. White marble, streaked with pale red, and variegated with purple, brown, yellow, or green, is found in several parts of the counties of Cork and Kerry. Lead-grey, variegated with specks of pure white, is found at Carigaline, near Mallow and Cork, in the county of Cork. Many of these, and others which may be found, might be made an object of commerce, and preclude the necessity of importing the produce of foreign countries. Various other stones are found, extremely durable, and beautiful in architecture; besides granite, which forms certainly the most durable of all others for buildings, and is never injured by the external air, but rather increases in hardness by being exposed thereto. No chalk has been discovered in any part of Ireland, nor has flint in any considerable quantities been as yet found. But a variety of the silicious genus are not uncommon, as the onyx, agate, jasper, garnet, and amethyst, and abundant species of the quartz and of crystal, with quartose sand in great purity for the glass manufacture. Various species of the argillaceous genus are likewise found, fitted for various manufactures, from the coarsest pottery to finest porcelain. Kaolin, extremely pure, and equal to any Cornwall, has been found in the county of Wicklow. Kaolin is also said to be found near Cloyne, in the county of Cork, and in several parts of the county of Waterford.'

The metals furnished by Ireland are, iron in large quantities, gold †, silver, copper of a rich quality, lead, and cobalt; to which enumeration the following remark is subjoined:

'This

* We request him, however, to correct 'ocean *of waters*:' is there an ocean of land?

† In addition to the account in the Wicklow report, which we extracted, it is added here: 'Some very skilful mineralogists are of opinion,

'This is only a very imperfect sketch or outline, to shew what objects of this kind are to be found in this part of the united kingdom. And it might certainly be worth the attention of men of capital in England to form a company, or companies, to take up some of those mines; as the greatest part of them might, if conducted with skill and œconomy, be worked to profit, at a moderate expence, and, as the richest mines in Cornwall are now so deep as to be attended with great expence, and Pary's mountain is said to be nearly exhausted of its copper ore, it would be very important, in order to supply the demand of the home market, as well as for exportation, to open those mines in Ireland that seem to hold out such tempting advantages to the industry of man.'

Though, however, Mr. F. encourages the Irish to explore the bowels of the earth, and to draw from them the riches which they contain, he directs their chief attention to the amelioration and improvement of the surface; which, by its vegetable productions, more immediately contributes to the support of man; and to the cultivation and labour exercised on which, the prosperity of a state is chiefly to be attributed. Manufactures are also recommended, but subordinately to agriculture. Their union and harmony he is solicitous of promoting; and, in opposition to those who would immure manufacturers in large towns, he applauds the practice adopted in the staple manufacture of Ireland:

'Perfectly founded on this sound doctrine of true policy, is conducted the linen manufacture of Ireland, which may justly be considered as the staple manufacture of that part of the united kingdom, and affords a full proof that manufactures may be carried on in villages, and even cottages, to the general advantage of a country, and the promotion of agriculture, without crowding manufacturers into great towns, the invariable sink of the morals, health, amd population of a state, and, of course, of both wealth and revenue.

'Let any man examine the squalid appearance and unhealthy aspect of the manufacturers of Manchester, and the florid looks and cheerful aspect of the peasantry of Ulster, every doubt on this subject will be removed from his mind. The linen manufacture is perhaps more peculiarly suited than any other, for being spread abroad through a country, but there are many others that might, in some measure, be carried on with great advantage by village workmen, as well as the linen manufacture. At the cloth halls in Leeds, where it is not uncommon to sell £ 50,000. worth of woollen cloth in one day, and these markets twice a week; the cloth is manufactured in the adjacent villages. Amidst all the variety of curious manufactures now carried on in Birmingham, there is hardly any one kind that is not as com-

opinion, that at this place, where the gold has been found, in the county of Wicklow, there is, if pursued with spirit, a sufficient quantity of gold to supply all Europe.' Let every Irishman, then, buy a spade, and dig his way to fortune.

pletely

pletely manufactured by Mr. Bolton, in his great manufactory at Soho, within two miles of that town, many of whose workmen, when their day's work is finished, retire to adjacent hamlets on the adjoining common. So far, therefore, from disapproving of the linen manufacture from its being spread abroad over a country, it were to be wished, that all manufactures were carried as much as possible, in a similar manner. The statements about division of labour, and the reprobation of half farmers and half manufacturers, is taking a very imperfect view of things. If the numbers of journeymen manufacturers employed in towns, instead of spending many of their unworking hours at skittlegrounds and ale-houses, were to be settled in the country, with a garden adjoining their house, they would soon be induced to marry, and find delight in cultivating their garden, or instructing their children. Agriculture, the fountain of our wealth, would thus get a recruit of two hundred thousand new cultivators, who, were they to bestow but one hour a day in field labour, would thereby more benefit the nation, than by six hours in manufactures. Were even greater numbers of them to quit manufactures altogether, and to employ themselves in agriculture, the greater still would be the advantage to the nation. From this view of the relative advantages of employment of the people, we can hardly think that Ireland will find her advantage in the encouragement of manufactures instead of cultivators, at least, while in that island there is an acre to cultivate. At the same time, although these are not to be made any primary object, those branches of manufacture essentially necessary may, with advantage, be blended with the cultivators, but by no means be considered as that object on which the happiness, wealth, or revenue of a country depend.'

In recommending to the Irish an attention to the fisheries on their coasts, Mr. Fraser is particularly strenuous; and the evidence of facts which he produces seems to deserve the most attentive consideration. The Nymph Bank, situated at the distance of from ten to fifteen leagues from the southern coast of Ireland, is pointed out as an inexhaustible source of national wealth to a maritime state. Mr. F. details the particulars of his visit to this fishing bank, and adduces ample certificates to corroborate the truth of his relation:

'Having applied to Captain Wilby, commander of the Rutland revenue cruiser, of 100 tons, eight three pounders, and twenty-five men, he, very chearfully (in that way, which he always does in any thing interesting to the service of his country), complied with my request, and on the 24th of June ultimo, we sailed from Passage, in the harbour of Waterford, at three o'clock, P M. with a light breeze from the NE. At noon, the next day, the 25th, we came to anchor on the Nymph Bank, and found ourselves, by observation, in lat. 51°, 37′, north, the tower of Waterford harbour bearing NE. 26 miles, the high land of Dungarvan N. by E. 10 leagues distant, soundings 37 and 38 fathom water. The ground siliceous gravel and micaceous sand stone, with much broken shells and coralline. The fishing lines were now put out, and instantly we caught both cod,

hake, and ling of a large size, and of a very superior quality, although the time of day was unfavourable, and also the tides running strong (it being springs), did not easily suffer the lines to keep the ground.

'As my principal design in this voyage, was to ascertain the depth of water and extent of the bank, we weighed anchor and stood out to sea. We kept the line constantly going, and found, uniformly, as we stretched out, 40 fathom water, generally the same bottom, gravelly, with shells; and wherever we hove to, we never failed to catch fish, both cod, hake, and ling, except in some spots where we found the bottom to consist of fine sand. There we caught no fish. At six o'clock, P.M. we again anchored on the bank; the ground, shells and gravel; Helvock-head, the southern point of the harbour of Dungarvan, bearing NE. distant thirteen leagues. Here we again caught abundance of cod, hake, and ling.

'Having ascertained these points, and being deficient in bait, we stood for Dungarvan bay to trail for bait, the ground being favourable there for that purpose. In a short time, at about three leagues off Helvock-head, we got abundance of plaise, soal, and all kinds of ground fish. We then again, on the 28th, at 10 P.M. stood out for the bank, with a light breeze, being resolved to examine its furthest extent, both to the southward and westward. At eight o'clock next morning, the 29th, the high lands of Dungarvan bearing N. and by W. distant 15 leagues, hove to, and sounded in the same, 40 fathom water; ground gravelly, with shells; caught cod of a very large size, and full fed, also ling, and remarkable fine hake; of all which we might have caught any quantity; but at noon, saw a cutter to the NE. seemingly inclined to bear down upon us. Took in our lines, and made sail for her, hoisting our colours, and firing a friendly gun; receiving no answer, we gave chace, which the cutter observing, hauled her wind to the S.W. Finding her then to be an enemy, we cleared for action, and made more sail, and after a chase of nine hours, she escaped by her superior sailing *.'

The soundings on this bank are from 37 to 40 fathoms; the soundings on the Newfoundland Bank are from 22 to 50 fathoms. Captain Wilby, in his certificate, adds that he considers the Nymph Bank as more advantageous for taking fish, and more conveniently situated for sending to market, than the Dogger Bank: in support of which opinions, it is remarked;

'As the Nymph Bank is scarcely 150 leagues from Gravesend, having also generally favourable and smart gales along the British shores; without bruising or wasting the fish, the voyage might be easily performed in three or four days, whereas the well-boats from the north-eastern banks and coasts, are frequently as many weeks, and by means of constant agitation of the sea, the fish are much bruised and wasted. Besides, in very contrary winds, they would have the

* I have since been informed, by a person who spoke with her, that this was the Lion, smuggling cutter, mounting 16 guns; so that, had we come up with her, we could not have taken her; and this is one amongst many proofs, that the revenue cruisers on that coast should be much larger than they are at present.'

choice

choice of Dublin, Liverpool, Bristol, &c. and if in the channel, some good markets, particularly Portsmouth, where there is always a good demand for cod.'

The considerations suggested in this pamphlet are of the utmost importance to Ireland; and, if she be not blind to her own welfare, she will glean much profit from Mr. Fraser's patriotic labours.

Art. XV. *Sermons*, by William Jay. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Mathews, &c. 1802.

We have been informed that Mr. Jay is a celebrated Dissenting preacher at Bath; and, judging of his talents and acquirements only by the specimens before us, we may pronounce that his popularity is some proof of the discernment of his audience. His discourses are regular, without being formal; animated, without being rhapsodical; and explanatory, without being tamely paraphrastic. To a mind deeply imbued with a knowlege of the Scriptures, he unites a memory which at once presents to him every passage that has any bearing on his subject, and a rich fancy which always furnishes him with images to decorate his composition. His principles may be described as tinctured with Calvinism, rather than as rigidly Calvinistic; and while he boldly avows his own convictions, he evinces the greatest liberality of sentiment; overlooking all party distinctions in his noble efforts to reclaim sinners from vice, and to stimulate the well-disposed to perseverance in religion. No knots of sacred criticism are here attempted to be untied: but the preacher's whole aim appears to be to rouse his hearers to a sense of their duty, and to assist and cheer them in the practice of it. It is but justice to add that he is always spirited, and sometimes elegant.

Of the twelve Sermons which constitute the present volume, the 1st is intitled, Mistakes concerning the Number of the Righteous.—2. The Triumphs of Patience.—3. Vows called to Remembrance.—4. The Nature of genuine Religion.—5. The Young admonished.—6. The Gospel demands and deserves attention.—7. The Sufferings of our Saviour necessary.—8. The Condemnation of Self-will.—9. The Secure alarmed.—10. On the Progress of Religion.—11. The Privileges of the Righteous.—12. The Condition of Christians in the World.

In the first sermon Mr. Jay thus combats the narrow sentiments respecting the number to be saved which too much prevail among religionists. 'The readiest way,' he says, 'to thin heaven and to replenish hell is to call in the spirit of Bigotry. This will immediately arraign, condemn, and execute those who do not bow down and worship the image of our idolatry.' He then proceeds:

'No wonder, if under the influence of this consuming zeal, we form lessening views of the number of the saved.—"I only am left." Yes, they are few indeed, if none belong to them that do not belong to your party—that do not see with your eyes—that do not believe election with you, or universal redemption with you—that do not worship under a steeple with you, or in a meeting with you—that are not dipped with you or sprinkled with you.—But hereafter we shall find that the righteous were not so circumscribed, when we shall see "many coming from the east, and from the west, from the north, and from the south; to sit down with Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob, in the kingdom of heaven."

'Do I plead for an excessive candour?—That candour which regards all sentiments alike, and considers no error as destructive, is no virtue. It is the offspring of ignorance, of insensibility, and of cold indifference.—The blind do not perceive the difference of colours: the dead never dispute: ice as it congeals aggregates all bodies within its reach, however heterogeneous their quality. Every virtue has certain bounds, and when it exceeds them, it becomes a vice; for the last step of a virtue, and the first step of a vice, are contiguous.

'But surely it is no wildness of candour, that leads us to give the liberty we take; that suffers a man to think for himself unawed; and that concludes he may be a follower of God, though "he follow not with us." Why should we hesitate to consider a man a christian, when we see him abhorring and forsaking sin, "hungering and thirsting after righteousness," diligent in approaching unto God, walking "in newness of life;" and discovering a spirituality of temper, a disposition for devotion, a deadness to the world, a benevolence of mind, and a liberality of hand, such as we seldom find in those high-toned doctrinalists, who regard themselves as the only advocates for free grace?—And by the way, it is not a system of doctrine however good, or a judgment in divine things however clear, that will constitute a christian.'

Mr. Jay's reflection at p. 291. merits the consideration of those who are bigoted to the creed of their own sect: 'What a difference is there between the ocean of revelation, and such a vessel-full of truth as any formulary of doctrines contains!'

It is neatly and beautifully remarked that 'Holiness is the Gospel embodied;' and that 'the life of the active christian is the labour of the bee; who all day long is flying from the hive to the flower and from the flower to the hive, but all his business is confined to fragrancy and productive of sweets.'

The ninth sermon, on Amos vi. 1. *Woe to them that are at ease in Zion*, is the most *searching* and *awakening*. After having expatiated on the desirableness of ease of circumstances and of body, but particularly of peace of mind and of a calm within, the Preacher thus commences his expostulations:

'And yet strange as the declaration may appear, this tranquillity is too common; and to disturb it, is the design of this discourse: a design,

a design, not only justified by inspired example, and demanded by ministerial fidelity, but required even by love to your souls. For though it may wear the appearance of harshness; it is in reality the kindest expression of friendship: it is the severity of one who rushes forth, and breaks in upon your pleasing reverie, when you approach the brink of a dreadful precipice; it is the severity of one, who should knock loudly, and interrupt your repose, when he perceived your house becoming the prey of devouring flames, and saw you had scarcely time to escape—For your peace is a false peace. It is the friendship of Joab concealing his murderous dagger. It is the slumber of Samson in the lap of Delilah, softly depriving him of his locks. It is a sleep obtained by opium. It is the loss of feeling, the presage of death. It is the calm of the dead sea, the consequence and the evidence of a curse—Thus we have observed, that before a fall of exceeding heavy rain, the wind has been unusually still—Thus historians inform us, that before an earthquake, the air is uncommonly serene. Whether therefore you will hear, or whether you will forbear, I sound the alarm, and give you warning from God—"Woe to them that are at ease in Zion."

The substance of the discourse is occupied in delineating those characters, the delusion of which Mr. Jay wishes to destroy; viz. those who are *at ease* from selfish insensibility, from infidel presumption, from vain confidence, and from practical indifference.

Some excellent remarks occur in the sermon on the *Progress of Religion*; and the Preacher's application of the text (Joshua xiii. 1.) we believe to be new: but we do not think that such playfulness with Scripture is a proof of good taste. His illustration of the advantages of progressive religion must finish our extracts:

'Needs the christian be told, that adding grace to grace, is adding "strength to strength," dignity to dignity, beauty to beauty, joy to joy? It is with the christian, as it is with the man in trade; the more he acquires, the more he is enabled to gain; every increase is not only a possession, but a capacity. "To him that hath, shall be given, and he shall have more abundantly; but from him that hath not, shall be taken away even that which he seemeth to have." The more sin is mortified in us, the less will the "prince of this world find" to encourage his approach; the less susceptible shall we be of temptation in the scenes of danger through which we pass. There is something very attractive and pleasing in progress. It is agreeable to observe a stately edifice rising up from the deep basis, and becoming a beautiful mansion. It is entertaining to see the rough outline of a picture, filled and finished. It is striking in the garden, to behold the tree renewing signs of life; to mark the expanding foliage, the opening bud, the lovely blossom, the swelling, colouring, ripening fruit. And where is the father, where is the mother, who has not sparkled with delight, while contemplating the child growing in stature; acquiring by degrees the use of its tender

limbs; beginning to totter, and then to walk more firmly; the pointing finger succeeded by the prattling tongue; curiosity awakened; reason dawning; new powers opening; the character forming—But nothing is to be compared with the progress of "this building of God."

'The way of life, narrow at the entrance, widens as we proceed. It is the nature of habits to render their acts easy and delightful. There is little pleasure in religion, if there be no fervency: if there be no vigour in faith, no zeal in devotion, no life in duty—religion is without a soul; it is the mere carcass of inanimate virtue.'

When Mr. Jay discusses the expediency of the sufferings of Christ, he seems aware of the difficulties which await the doctrine of Satisfaction; and he expressly bars the assertion that "the Divine Being *could not* pardon sin without an atonement." In short, he affords no encouragement to those religionists who delight in perplexity and disputation; but, to adopt the words of the Apostle, which he has taken for his motto, he avoids foolish questions and unprofitable contentions, and considers his chief duty as consisting in exhorting his flock "to maintain good works."

This is preaching as preaching ought to be conducted, and all besides is vain display and empty trifling.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JANUARY, 1803.

TRAVELS.

Art. 16. *Modern Discoveries;* or a Collection of Facts and Observations, principally relative to the various Branches of Natural History, resulting from the Geological, Topographical, Botanical, Physiological, Mineralogical, and Philosophical Researches of celebrated Modern Travellers in every Quarter of the Globe. Carefully translated, prepared, and reprinted, from the Works of the most eminent Authors, by Francis Blagdon, Esq. Octodecimo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. Ridgway. 1802.

THIS collection commences with the *Travels of Denon in Upper and Lower Egypt*, translated, without Abridgment, from the Original Folio Edition, and embellished with Maps, Plates, Vignettes, &c. These two volumes may therefore be considered as a third translation of Denon; and, without adverting to the series in contemplation *, and for which proposals are offered, they form in themselves a complete work.

In his preface, Mr. Blagdon reprobates on the one hand the very expensive modern mode of book-making with broad margins and

* Two more volumes have just reached us, containing Golberry's Travels in Africa.

wide

wide lines, and despicable heterogeneous abridgments on the other. He then proposes to exhibit interesting works, unabridged, but in an economical yet elegant style; and thus he hopes to present the most superb publications which have appeared in every European language, at a very moderate price. M. Denon's Travels are given as the first specimen, and the translation is as neatly executed as any which has appeared; but it is not without errors, as may be seen at p. 11. where Venice is put for Gozo. Like Mr. Aikin, Mr. Blagdon has conveniently broken the narrative into chapters; and like Mr. Kendal, he has interwoven in the text the substance of the notes subjoined to the plates which illustrate the original work. As cheapness was consulted, few plates are given; and on this ground the omissions may be justified: but we cannot admit the reason which this new translator has assigned, that 'the great body of original plates possess no particular interest, they being composed either of *ruined temples*, or representations of battles, &c.' The prominent feature of M. Denon's book is antiquity; and the present state of the noble remains of Egyptian art is best shewn by delineations of them.

Wood cuts of objects in Natural History are introduced in the letter press. The work is well printed; and we recommend it to Mr. B., in the progress of his undertaking, to attend to the selection and execution of the embellishments.

Art. 17. *The Modern Traveller.* Vol. I. containing the compressed Travels of Mungo Park in the Western Interior of Africa. Vol. II. those of Ledyard, Lucas, and Sonnini. Vol. III. those of Browne, Savary, and Volney. Vol. IV. those of M. Le Vaillant. 4 Vols. 12mo. 16s. Boards. Cawthorn.

Ship-wrights are not better acquainted with the method of *cutting down* a line of battle ship to a frigate, than book-wrights with the art of *cutting down* ponderous folios and quartos to octavos and twelves. The *Modern Traveller* is one instance of this convenient system of diminution. To the first volume, is prefixed a discourse on the knowlege of Africa which the antients possessed, compiled from those authors who treat of this subject: but it appears to have been hastily written, and is not free from defects. We believe that few persons, for whom this compilation was intended, will comprehend what the author means by the *new organ* in the following sentence in the first page: 'The mariner's compass and the *new organ* co-operated in bringing to our minds vast stores of food;'—and we hope that they will not imitate the grammar of the following period, which occurs in almost the last page: 'In all ages, and in all parts of Africa, ever known to Europeans, *there was* a slave trade prevailed.'—It is farther observed that 'the native and original Africans are considerably inferior in point of understanding to Asiatics, and far beneath Europeans.' This we know is a general opinion: but, when negroes have had opportunities of cultivating their minds, they have often proved that they were not defective in natural talents; and it is probable that the African race in general, if they enjoyed the advantages of education and good government, would contradict

the degrading sentiments which are propagated, often for unworthy purposes, respecting their natural incapacity.

The object of the editor is stated to be, 'to accommodate those, who may be desirous of being acquainted with modern discoveries, without choosing to be at the expence of the original works, with publications, in an abridged form, of the most remarkable travels, and voyages, exhibited historically and in a connected series.'

These four volumes contain the class of African travels, with which is given an appropriate introduction; and it is intended to preface each future series with a similar account of the knowlege which existed relative to that quarter of the globe in which the travels were made, previously to the modern discoveries.

Much is here offered for little money, which in these times is a tempting circumstance.

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 18. *The Anatomist's Vade-Mecum.* Containing the Anatomy, Physiology, Morbid Appearances, &c. of the Human Body; the Art of making Preparations, &c. 4th Edition. By Robert Hooper, M.D. Crown 8vo. 7s. Boards. Murray and Highley. 1802.

This manual, containing the most recent discoveries and opinions, will be useful to Students, as a kind of syllabus: but its utility would have been increased, had references been given to works of credit, at the end of each article. Even without this assistance, however, we do not hesitate to recommend it. The clear, though short account of the mode of making preparations will prove of considerable advantage in the dissecting-room.

Art. 19. *An Account of an Ophthalmia, which appeared in the Second Regiment of Argyleshire Fencibles*, in the Months of February, March, and April, 1802: With some Observations on the Egyptian Ophthalmia. By Arthur Edmonston, Surgeon. 8vo. 1s. Callow. 1802.

From the circumstances under which this epidemic appeared, the author seems inclined to believe that it was produced by contagion; but to us this appears rather doubtful. The inflammation was rapid and violent in all the cases, but there were no symptoms different from the common ophthalmia. The most effectual remedy, in the early stage of the disease, was found to be scarification of the vessels on the globe of the eye, and the application of tepid water. Other modes of practice, familiarly known, are recommended in the subsequent course of the disease; on which it is the less necessary to dwell, as we have lately given an account of Mr. Noble's copious treatise on this subject.

We are sorry to observe throughout this pamphlet, which is otherwise respectably written, the perverse spelling *Opthalmia* used, instead of Ophthalmia. We have corrected this error in copying the title-page.

Art.

Art. 20. *A Treatise on Brown's System of Medicine.* Translated from the German of H. C. Pfaff, M. D. By John Richardson. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Jones. 1802.

While the physicians of this country have emancipated themselves from the chains of systems, and are attentive only to useful facts and applicable improvements, we are concerned to observe that there is yet, on the Continent, a proneness to intellectual slavery. The specious arrangement of some well-known facts in a jargon apparently new, or the bold substitution of a new word for a general principle, is still capable of creating followers and admirers amid our neighbours. The delusion, however, has not been general; and among other asserters of the independence of medicine, we have to rank the author of the present pamphlet. His objections to the Brunonian doctrine may be seen in the following summary, given by himself:

'1. The excitability is a power not every where equal, but differently modified in different organs and systems.

'2. The stimuli, which act on the excitability, do not affect it entirely in the same way, and their effect is various.

'3. The relation of stimulation is not the only one in which the external things stand to the excitability.

'4. The common natural stimuli, upon whose influence or operation life and good health depend, make up but a small insignificant part of the stimuli which act as causes of disease.

'5. The remote causes of disease act proximately or immediately, not only on the solid animated parts, but on the fluids.

'6. Increased or diminished excitement by no means constitutes the essence of diseases, which is rather determined by the united state of the solids and fluids in regard to motion, structure, and mixture.

'7. In diseases the excitement is seldom merely strengthened or merely weakened in the whole system, and the division into two principal forms of diseases is by consequence a wrong one.'

This treatise is translated from a dissertation prefixed to Dr. Pfaff's editions of Brown's Elements. Having formerly noticed the original *, we shall not dwell longer on the present publication.

Art. 21. *Cases of Cancer*, with Observations on the Use of Carbonate of Lime in that Disease. By Edward Kentish, M.D. 8vo. 1s. Mawman. 1802.

Two cases are here related, (more diffusely, perhaps, than was requisite,) in one of which an apparently cancerous sore was healed by the application of carbonate of lime; in the other, a tendency to cicatrization was produced, *for a time*. Any new proposal merits attention, in so hopeless a disease: but we are sorry to say that the proofs of the efficacy of this plan rest properly on one case only; for there are other means by which cancerous sores are known to be palliated, and even partially healed.

Dr. Kentish has attempted to shew a connexion between rheumatism and cancer, at a certain age, in females:—but the instances

* See Rev. Vol. xxi. N. S. p. 524.

which

which he cites we should reckon mere examples of coincidence, from which no satisfactory conclusion can be drawn.

Art. 22. *An Inquiry into some of the Effects of the Venereal Poison on the Human Body*; with an occasional Application of Physiology, Observations on some of the Opinions of Mr. John Hunter and Mr. Benjamin Bell, and Practical Remarks. By S. Sawrey, Surgeon. 8vo. pp. 201. 5s. Boards. Lackington and Co. 1802.

The author of this publication adopts the opinion of Mr. John Hunter, respecting the similarity of the matter of gonorrhæa and chancre: but, instead of supposing with him that the difference in the effects arises from the surface to which the one is applied being secreting, and the other non-secreting, he considers the fact as explicable on the idea of the urethra possessing open-mouthed vessels, fitted for exhalation, and capable of throwing out their contents without any breach in their texture. This, however, is nothing more than the ordinary function of the secreting vessels of cavities, and seems to us only a variation of Mr. Hunter's language.—Mr. Sawrey examines minutely the well-known arguments of Mr. Bell on this subject, and deems himself justified (frequently without conclusive evidence) in pronouncing the opinions of that author to be extravagant or ill founded. His principal deviation from the doctrines of Mr. Hunter consists in supposing that the venereal virus is not kept up by a specific action of a part, but by the matter secreted from it, which he thinks may acquire its poisonous quality after secretion; that the effects of the venereal poison, when taken into the blood, are venereal; that the poison increases in the blood; that the product of sores in lues venerea is poisonous; that the fœtus in utero may be infected by the mother; that the secretions may also be contaminated; and that the venereal disease seldom becomes the cause of other complaints.

Art. 23. *An Inquiry into the Effects of Oxygen in the Cure of Syphilis*; to which are subjoined a few general Observations on its Application in various other Disorders. By Charles Platt, Surgeon of the New Finsbury Dispensary. 8vo. 2s. Mawman.

After the very ample evidence which has already been laid before the public, on the subject of this essay, it seems to us perfectly unnecessary to multiply documents; particularly as the great body of discerning medical men have long ceased to entertain any doubts on the points in discussion. The present author's observations and experiments are judicious and conclusive: but, as they are in no material respect different from those which we have before had occasion to notice, we shall only state that his experience goes to shew the inefficacy of the acids and their combinations in the cure of syphilis; and that, from a review of the cases in which gaseous fluids have been employed, he is induced to regard this class of remedies with considerable distrust.

In the course of this essay, the author touches upon the celebrated controversy on the identity of the poisons of gonorrhæa and chancre, and seems inclined to agree with Mr. John Hunter in his ideas on that subject.

Art.

Art. 24. *Medical and Physical Memoirs*; containing, among other Subjects, a particular Inquiry into the Origin and Nature of the late Pestilential Epidemics of the United States. By Charles Caldwell, M.D. 8vo. pp. 350. Printed at Philadelphia. Sold in London by Wynne and Scholey. Price 8s. Boards.

This work consists of four memoirs, the first and second of which, together with an occasional address to the Philadelphia Medical Society, are occupied in giving a physical sketch of the natural history of Philadelphia, with an investigation of the origin and nature of the yellow fever, and its connection with other diseases.—The author is a zealous supporter of the opinion that the yellow fever is of domestic origin. He professes to examine the question with the most candid spirit of philosophical inquiry: but he too frequently considers his adversaries as having acted, if not contrary to conviction, at least with partiality and prejudice; and he assumes to his own positions a degree of force and consequence, to which we do not conceive them to be intitled. As, in his facts and reasoning, he does little more than repeat the arguments which have been frequently stated by others who adopt the same opinions, we deem it unnecessary to enter into a particular detail or examination of them. In his plan of cure, he only points out some general indications, and the means by which he thinks that they may be fulfilled, without giving any results from his own experience on this very important subject.

His third memoir treats on the Winter Retreat of Swallows; in which, after having stated the different theories, with their relative arguments, Dr. Caldwell concludes by being decidedly in favour of migration to distant climates.

In the fourth memoir, the author urges several arguments against the opinion of Dr. Barton, that the remote cause of Goitre is the same miasm which produces intermittent and remittent fevers, and dysenteries.

Art. 25. *A Description of the Muscles of the Human Body as they appear on Dissection*; with Prints and Maps shewing the Insertions of Muscles. By Jos. Constantine Carpue, Surgeon to his Majesty's Forces, and Teacher of Anatomy. 4to. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

The object of this publication is to facilitate the study of myology, by describing the muscles in the order in which they appear on dissection, and referring to maps and plates for their situation. The maps have an engraving of the bones on one side, and on the other an outline only, with lines of different colours shewing the insertions and course of the muscles, and with appropriate marginal references: but where it was impracticable to form maps of this kind, as in the muscles of the face, abdomen, feet, &c. the author has given small and ill executed, though distinct plates, from Duverney, Cowper, or Albinus. To his descriptions, which are full and accurate, he subjoins the synoyma of Innes, Albinus, Douglas, Winslow, Cowper, and the new nomenclature of Dumas, Professor of Anatomy at Montpellier.—On the whole, the plan seems likely to answer the purpose which Mr. Carpue had in view, viz. that of facilitating the study of a very important part of anatomy.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 26. *Plain Thoughts on the New Testament Doctrine of Atonement.* By John Simpson, of Hackney. 8vo. 2s. Johnson. 1802.

Aware of the nature of the enterprize in which he is embarked, Mr. S. endeavours to fortify his mind by some prefatory remarks against the assault of calumny. 'Those (says he) who profess to step forward as reformers in any degree, either of sentiments or manners, must expect a slender share of good nature from the friends of existing abuses. But those who act for God, and truth, must put on all their Christian armour, and be prepared for events. Contempt, and hard names, are not among the most serious evils. He who fears to encounter a small degree of opposition in a good cause, has not yet made up his accounts. That must be a bad cause which is not worth encountering a frown, or a reproachful name in its support.' Had not we ourselves been long in the habit of meeting with equal apathy the censure of vulgar ignorance and senseless prejudice, we might deem it prudent, knowing the ground which we shall occupy on the present occasion, to "skrew up *our* courage" by a similar declaration. We shall pass on, however, without pretending that any peculiar fortitude or self-possession is necessary to the discharge of our duty. We declare, without hesitation, that we cherish no respect for any doctrines merely because some *may declare* them to be "fundamental of the gospel;" nor are we hence restrained from rejecting them, if we have good reason for considering them as fundamentally erroneous. Let Ithuriel's spear be applied to every article of what is called Orthodoxy and Heterodoxy.

Considering the serious difficulties which oppress the commonly received notion of *Atonement* and *Satisfaction*, we desire for the sake of truth to have it submitted to the fullest examination; and perhaps, if, in the discussion of this and of other tenets attached to religious creeds, the different synonymous terms which contain the essence or supposed essence of the subjects in debate were arranged in the form of an algebraical equation, controversies would be shortened, and the cause of truth promoted. Thus, for instance:

Original sin=the sinfulness of Adam's posterity in Adam's sin=transgression before existence=guilt attached to non-entity=thinking and acting when thought and action were impossible=a manifest absurdity or contradiction in terms. Again,

Atonement, as commonly understood,=*Satisfaction*=an equivalent for the debt due=the exoneration or discharge of the original creditor=exemption from farther demand=a complete discharge.

If the atonement or satisfaction be for the sin of the world, or of the human race, by the suffering of a righteous person, the *satisfaction*=a transfer of punishment on the one hand; and, taking from the person offended all right of punishing on the other,=the abrogation of all claim on the sinner for the future=annihilation of religious duty or obligation.

Allowing these to be just equations, have we not reason to suspect the propriety of the first terms? On the subject of the pamphlet before us, Mr. Simpson has suggested a variety of judicious reflections, which

which tend to place it in a clear and rational point of view. If he will consult Dr. John Taylor's *Key to the Apostolic Writings* prefixed to his Paraphrase on the Epistle to the Romans, we think that Mr. S. will find that he has mistaken the Doctor's meaning: but, in other respects, so far from having any objection to his pamphlet, we highly approve its object and tendency. 'If (as he observes) the mere term *for us* proves that Christ suffered as a substitute, and if it necessarily signifies in our stead, then Christ has been our substitute in a way, which even those who so vehemently contend for the doctrine, would scarcely be thankful for. For, besides dying *for us*, he is said also to have entered into heaven *for us*. Surely no man in his senses would contend that Christ is entered into glory as our proxy or substitute, or in our place and stead; and therefore that we ourselves shall not be admitted there.'

He farther remarks that, had satisfaction for sin been the object for which the Son of God "endured the cross," the language of the Scriptures on this subject must have been cast in a different mould; so that, instead of reading that Christ has suffered for sin, *that he might bring us to God*, we should read, Christ has suffered for sin, *that he might bring God to us*.

After having pointed out how completely at variance the doctrine which he combats is with the whole tenor of Scripture, and with the very idea of divine justice, he thus concludes: 'If there are in nature any such monsters as can wish for a religion, contemptible for its absurdities, detestable for its consequences, and as unlike as we can possibly conceive to every thing derived from the source of infinite purity, wisdom, goodness, and truth, can any thing present itself to meet such a wish, more fully than the doctrine of Satisfaction?"

As this is not a mere speculative doctrine, but involves the essential interests of morality, we recommend it to the serious consideration of Christians; and we hope that preachers will endeavour to correct popular misconceptions relative to the scripture doctrine of reconciliation through Christ, which is not that of God to man, but of man to God.

Art. 27. *Proposals for a New Arrangement of the Revenues and Residence of the Clergy.* By Edward Poulter, M. A. Prebendary of Winchester. 8vo. pp. 38.

Under a serious persuasion that some reform both in the revenues and residence of the clergy is indispensably required, Mr. P. offers his sentiments on these subjects with great manliness, and with an equitable attention to the interests of all parties. His proposal respecting a New Arrangment of Tithes is,

'A survey and valuation to be procured under general sworn Commissioners (partly lay, partly clerical) appointed by an act, for each county, of the tithes in each parish; to the amount of which, a composition in rent to be established by them, binding on both parties, until either, on account of supposed change in the value of the said tithes, shall demand a similar re-survey, at the expence of the party so of right, and at will, demanding it. The Special Commissioners in each instance (being not less than three of the General Commissioners) to be nominated jointly by the parties concerned; that is, one

one by the parish, one by the incumbent, and the third to be agreed on by the other two.—The valuation to be procured with the utmost precision, by actual admeasurement where necessary, and otherwise. The security of the actual tithes to remain, as it is, to the proprietor; which he may resort to, and enter upon, whenever the payment of the composition shall be in arrear, in the same manner as in the case of any other freehold or lease.'

On the other subject of his pamphlet, Mr. P. observes that a *Register of Residence, with consequent penalty of Non-Residence*, should be kept in all parishes, similarly to the practice in cathedrals; with the exceptions of what are denominated *Legitimate Impediments*, as ill health, &c.

Acting as a conscientious clergyman, Mr. Poulter does not separate the interests of his order from those of religion and the public: but, while he would secure the revenues of the clergy, he would also enforce the regular discharge of their duty. He ingenuously remarks that 'all the laws securing to the clergy their dues, are clear, easy, practicable, in constant and full force; while all those requiring their duties, are confused, difficult, invidious, and almost obsolete.' This evil Mr. P. wishes to remedy; and the intrinsic merit of his hints, together with the manner in which they are exhibited, ought to produce an effect on all liberal minds.

Art. 28. *A Letter to an Antipædobaptist.* By Joseph Priestley, LL.D. F.R.S. 8vo. pamphlet. Printed at Northumberland in America, and sold by Johnson in London. 1802.

In the controversy to which this letter relates, it is almost impossible to suggest any new observation: but Dr. Priestley has given a neat and concise view of the subject, at least on his side of the question. Conceiving the late Mr. Robinson of Cambridge to have been either wilfully or inadvertently guilty of some misrepresentations in his *History of Baptism*, Dr. P. applies himself to refute them; and for this purpose he liberally avails himself of Wall's *History of Infant Baptism*. He divides his letter into five sections; in which are stated first the presumptive evidence in favour of the antiquity of infant baptism, and then arguments of a more direct nature:—he next discusses the objections to his reasoning, points out the origin of Antipædobaptism, and concludes with some remarks on dipping or sprinkling, and on the obligation of the rite of Baptism itself.

It is admitted by Dr. P. that the N. T. furnishes no clear example of the baptism of any infant; yet he produces proofs of the existence of the practice not long posterior to the times of the Apostles. Though, however, he strenuously contends for the high antiquity of infant baptism, and considers it as a valuable and expressive rite, he resists every superstitious application of it. He grants that all the real uses of Christianity may be obtained without any such ordinance, and does not condemn the Quakers for their rejection both of Baptism and the Lord's Supper: but he regards both the emblem and the opportunity of baptism as matters of importance in the instrumental department of religion; and he pleads equally for the continuance of this rite, and for its being extended to the case of infants.

Art.

Art. 29. *The Book of Common Prayer reformed.* The 2d Edition. Together with the Book of Psalms, and a Collection of Hymns, for Public Worship. Revised and corrected. 8vo. sewed. Johnson. 1802.

As we gave a full account of the first edition of this Reformed Liturgy, in our 14th Vol. N. S. p. 267. it is unnecessary for us now to comment on its distinguishing features. The name of Dr. Disney, subjoined to the preface, is a sufficient indication of its being a form of prayer strictly *Unitarian*, constructed on the plain and simple statement that "there is one God and one mediator between God and man, the man Christ Jesus."

With this edition, is given a new version of the Psalms; in the execution of which the editor confesses himself to have been indebted to his 'very learned and discerning friend, the late Dr. Geddes, who permitted him to have access to a part of his translation of the Psalms.' Among other improvements of the Book of Common Prayer, a new version of the Psalms is much wanted. Such expressions as "suffering the runagates to continue in scarceness," Ps. lxviii. 6. are both low and unintelligible, and are here well exchanged for 'the rebellious he leaveth to inhabit a barren land.'—The choice of the psalm being, in this Liturgy, left to the discretion and appointment of the minister, Dr. Disney has expunged from the collection of Psalms, those which least accord with the mild and forgiving spirit of the gospel.

The subjoined collection of Hymns is taken from several authors, but almost every composition has undergone some alteration. They are well adapted to public worship, and in point of doctrine are unexceptionable: but we wish that Dr. D. had excluded those offensive and lazy stanzas, in which the third line does not rhime to the first, even though they proceeded from the pen of the accomplished Mrs. Barbauld.

Among this collection of hymns, we recommend the insertion of *the Lord's Prayer, paraphrased* by Mr. Merrick, which is inserted in the 1st Vol. of the Supplement to Dodsley's Collection, p. 174.

Art. 30. *Remarks on the Revelation of St. John*; illustrating the present State of Christianity. By a Christian. 8vo. pp. 42. 1s. Chapman. Also, a separate Appendix, Price 6d.

In the title-page, we find the following description of this pamphlet; 'Wherein the prophesies pertaining to religion during the apostacy of the church of Rome are relieved from the ambiguity in which they are involved, by their arrangement; and the nature of the great events which have lately astonished the Christian world fully illustrated, by their application: the falling of the tenth part of the city is explained, and considered in relation to the death and resurrection of the Witnesses; and the concerns of religion and the empire are both traced to the event of that great day of God Almighty, when the kingdoms of this world shall become the kingdoms of our Lord and of his Christ, and all people, nations, and languages shall serve him.'—This is promising much, indeed, on such a subject: how far it is accomplished, different readers will perhaps differently decide. We have

have perused the tract with attention, and perceive that it is not a mere fanciful, illiterate, or hasty performance; and though the writer appears to be persuaded of the justice of his remarks, he does not assume superior or confidential airs. The principal objects of his attention are the 14th, 15th, and 16th chapters of this emblematical and mysterious book; in which he is assisted by the observations of Mr. Mede and Bishop Newton, whom he mentions with the highest regard, and from whom, when he dissents, he dissents with modesty. His account of the *fourth* and *fifth vials* may perhaps attract some notice. The *sun*, on which the *fourth* is said to have been poured, Mr. Mede has interpreted to signify the German empire; it is here applied to France, and considered as clearly fulfilled and illustrated by the confusions and revolutions, which of late years have been there experienced; and not less clearly, it is apprehended, is the pouring forth of the fifth vial *on the seat of the beast* to be explained by those events which have been witnessed in Italy.

We are rather surprized that no notice is taken of Mr. Fleming's explication, so modestly delivered, of the fourth vial and its object; which excited the curiosity and attention of many people, and particularly in the metropolis, but a few years ago. It seems now to be very much forgotten:—but it is notwithstanding very remarkable that a writer, almost at the beginning of the last century, should not only have pointed out the spot in which the predicted vial might probably receive its accomplishment, but nearly fix on that period of time in which occurrences have arisen which the whole world has witnessed with astonishment.

Art. 31. *An Apology for the People called Methodists*; containing a concise Account of their Origin and Progress, Doctrine, Discipline, and Designs; humbly submitted to the Consideration of the Friends of Christianity. By Joseph Benson. 12mo. pp. 406. 4s. Boards. Whitfield.

This volume relates, principally at least, to those Methodists who rank under the name of *Wesley*; which, perhaps, may be the largest number. Mr. J. Wesley was certainly a most extraordinary man, possessed of great ability, and actuated (as it appears) by benevolent and laudable motives. The alterations effected by his direction and exertions in Great Britain and Ireland, the West Indies, and America, are truly surprising; for it must be acknowleged as a fact that, by his means, great numbers of people were civilized at least, and converted to a regular, sober, and inoffensive deportment. His high church principles and prejudices appear from this account to have been warm and obstinate: but they were gradually moderated, till, (we are told) when he was at Edinburgh in the year 1753, 'finding it was the time of celebrating the Lord's Supper, he laid aside his last portion of bigotry, and partook of this holy ordinance at the West-Kirk.'—It was, we learn from this volume, about the year 1741; that a disunion commenced between Mr. Wesley and Mr. Whitfield, occasioned by a sermon which the former had published against Predestination: 'but their good opinion of each other's integrity and usefulness, founded on long and intimate acquaintance,

could not be destroyed by such a difference of sentiment; and their mutual affection was only obscured by a cloud for a season.'

This publication is apparently written with much candour; and it affords, notwithstanding the mysticism which there may be among them, and which may appear in this book, a very favourable view of the designs and desires of those people whose cause it intends to plead. 'Our end (they say) is, not to form a sect, or to bring people to this or the other speculative opinion, mode of worship, or form of church government; but simply *to make them Christians*;—Christians in heart and life, in temper, word, and work,—such as lived in the early days of Christianity, and such as, we conceive, may live still.'

The volume concludes with a warm *appeal to the public*; a great part of which we apprehend to be in the language of Mr. Wesley himself. On the whole, the work is well worthy of perusal; as giving that account of this body of Methodists which is said to have been a *desideratum* in the nation:—yet we do not learn from it, whether their numbers at present increase or diminish.

POETRY, &c.

Art. 32. *The Peasant's Fate:* A Rural Poem. With Miscellaneous Pieces. By William Holloway. Small 8vo. pp. 128. 5s. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1802.

This author is one of those who profess to illuminate as well as to delight the public by their poetical productions; and who think that questions of statistical and political œconomy can be advantageously discussed in a series of descriptive couplets.

'The drift of this little attempt, (he tells us in the preface,) is principally designed, (without adverting to political argument,) to shadow forth the evils arising to the peasantry of this country, from the system of engrossing small farms, and driving the hereditary occupiers to the necessity of embracing a maritime or military life for support, or being reduced to the most abject state of dependence, and submitting to the galling hardship of becoming *servants* on the spot where they once had been *masters*.'

In pursuance of this design, the poem contains a long and exaggerated account of the pleasures and comforts enjoyed by the husbandmen of antient days, and of the evils which they are now made to suffer.—The style is flat and cold, and the versification drawling and feeble:—but the following passage has every pretension to poetry that mere *fiction* can bestow.—In former times, says Mr. H. the farmer sent his waggon to market,

> 'To bear his groaning gran'ry's choicest store,—
> Its price adapted for the neighb'ring poor,
> Whom, in all dealings, he remember'd still,
> Nor deign'd, by sordid arts, his purse to fill—
> O, fair example! now no longer known,
> Since grasping Av'rice serves *herself* alone!'

The contrasted degeneracy of later days inflames him to a still sublimer strain.

' ——— For, lo! a venal band
On Nature's bounty lay the griping hand,
Wrest from the poor the patrimonial cot,
His paddock add to their superfluous lot,
Meanly dependent, bid him seek his bread,
While, Timur-like, their vassal down they tread,
Frustrate the scheme wise Providence has plann'd,
And half depopulate their native land!
' Have you no bowels,—you, who claim the name
Of *Man?* Or different is your mental frame,
Whose ears, unmov'd, can hear the voice of woe,
Whose eyes behold the streams of sorrow flow?'

These passages are in the author's loftiest style: but he is not less a master of the simple and affecting;—for instance:

' Oft has my Grandam begg'd me to refrain
From boyish pranks, which give another pain;
For still her heart, to sympathy inclin'd
Benevolently felt for all mankind;
And oft, affectingly, would she recite
The tale of SIMON and the Fiery Sprite!'

Since the publication of Goldsmith's delightful poem, the depopulation of villages has been a common theme for poets in their apprenticeship; and the sufferings of the poor in the late scarcity have again given a temporary interest to this subject.—There are some striking images in Mr. Holloway's performance, for there are several that are copied very accurately from "the Deserted Village:" but the passages which we have already quoted will probably be sufficient to satisfy our readers that, when he writes from his own stores, his poetical and his argumentative powers are nearly on a level.

Of the 'Miscellaneous Pieces,' it is most charitable to say nothing.

Art. 33. *Thoughts on Happiness*; a Poem, in Four Books. 8vo. 3s. Rivingtons, &c.

If there be nothing very new nor very striking in the sentiments of this poem, they are at least devout and perspicuous. The author has evidently taken the *Essay on Man* as his moral both in point of versification and style of reasoning, and he is very far from being a despicable imitator. There is a degree of feebleness, however, united with a degree of harshness in his composition, that occasionally disappoints us.

The whole piece is so equally laboured, that we may take any passage as a specimen:

' Each living thing to which the World gives birth,
Each beast that crawls, or stately walks the earth,
Each feather'd fowl, each tenant of the flood,
Was made, and still continues to be good.
If sins the Wolf when o'er the fold she flies,
And in her grasp the bleating victim dies,
Then sins the Ox, as oft, by hunger led,
He rudely riots on the cowslip bed;

Each

Each in its place, and each within its kind,
Still acts the part by Providence assign'd;
Thro' ages bearing this sad truth along,
That Man alone of all God's works is wrong.'—

'Some higher cause then must this power impart,
To cleanse and purify the human heart.
Seek you it truly?—beaten is the road,
It is reflection and the word of God.
These, these will shew you, would you deign to see,
This, what you are; that, what you ought to be.

'Let him whose passions, so perversely strong,
Will take the lead, and yet will lead him wrong,
Fly to a Saviour of unbounded might,
"Whose yoke is easy, and whose burden light;"
In fervent faith confide in him alone,
Hope thro' his merits, tremble for his own.'

The profits of this publication, we are informed in the advertisement, are to be applied to the fund for relieving the necessitous widows and children of clergymen within the archdeaconry of Coventry.

Art. 34. *The Appeal of the imprisoned Debtor.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Bell.

We sincerely wish that this pleasing and well written appeal may conduce to rescue its author from the wretched society of a prison, which he thus describes:

'Lo! these are they who fill yon dreary pile,
Whose ling'ring hours dull blasphemies beguile:
For not alone the Wretched here are seen
With brow contracted, and a livid mien,
He who of murder makes his sullen boast,
Or knows each blood-stain'd cavern of the coast;
Or he who recreant prowls the busy street,
Or marks for midnight schemes the snug retreat,
Are here to mingle in the stupid roar,
And joy to hail one fallen brother more.
Alas! ere long *he* joins the giddy scene,
Reckless of what he is, or what has been;
—Wretched at first—to each low vice descends
The victim—lost to country, fame, and friends.'

Art. 35. *Almeda*; or, the Neapolitan Revenge: a Tragic Drama. By a Lady. 8vo. 2s. Symonds.

The plot of this tragedy, in which a lover is interred alive in the tomb of a malicious mistress, is said to be taken from the adventures of Rozelli. The original story, however, is of older date: we think that it is to be found in the Decameron.

Our deference for the author's sex leads us to say little of her performance: we are unwilling to blame, and we cannot praise it. The following passages will give our readers an idea of its merits:

'SCENE.—*The* COUNTESS'S *Chamber.*

The COUNTESS *on a Bed,* BEATRICE, *Women, and then enter* CASALIA.

Beatrice.—Madam, my Lord the Constable is come
With speed t' obey your summons.
Countess.— I'm very weak,
Yet still I'll see Casalia. Retire awhile.
[*To the Women, who exeunt.*
In that lov'd name there is a wondrous charm,
Which e'en in death sounds sweet upon mine ear.
Casalia.—Behold me, dear Almeda, still thy friend,
With ardent wishes for your health and safety.
Countess.—Casalia, thy neglect has fix'd my doom!
But tho' (sad emblems of thy with'ring love)
These fading charms are to their native dust
Retreating fast, yet still my love remains!
Still is that passion strong and undiminish'd
As in those fond and erring moments, when
I gave thee all my heart!
Casalia.— Lovely Almeda,
Oh! speak not thus desponding! By ev'ry tie
That binds me grateful to thy service ever,
No trials e'er so hard, nor danger fearful,
But I would dare them all with joy and pleasure
To save thy precious life!
Countess.— 'Tis now too late!
Thou lov'st another, and Zelecta's beauty
Bears off the prize from me! In wedlock's bonds
Ere long th' exulting maid will call thee, hers!
I claim a higher bliss! For thee, Casalia,
For thee I die!

'*Enter* BEATRICE *in haste.*

Beatrice.— Madam, th' afflicted Count
Impatient waits to enter. [*Exit* Beatrice.
Countess.— Dear Casalia,
If the last hope of these departing moments
Is sacred to thy soul, Oh! shew it now!
Let not the Count be witness to my weakness;
Preserve my honour, tho' thou'st scorn'd my love.
In yonder chest thou may'st conceal thyself
Until the Count retires. Be quick!—Farewell!
Casalia.—Thy honour, dearer than Casalia's life,
Shall be preserv'd. Adieu then, Dear Almeda!
May Heav'n restore thee to the good Paulina!

[CASALIA *goes into the Chest, then Enter* BEATRICE, &c. *and then the* COUNT *follows.*

Countess. (to Beatrice in a low voice.)
Dear Beatrice, lock up that valu'd chest,
And bring the key to me. With care and safety

Let

Let them then bear it to the antichamber;
Then all retire, and leave the Count with me.
[*Exeunt Servants and* Beatrice *with the Chest.*'

We cannot advise the fair writer to persist in her attempts at the drama.

Art. 36. *A Translation of the Eighth Satire of Boileau on Man:* Written in the Year 1667, and addressed to Mr. Morel, Doctor of [the] Sorbonne. 12mo. 1s. 6d. W. Phillips. 1801.

From the freedom with which this gentleman blames the common mode of translation, in his short introduction, we hoped to find him excel in his own efforts in this way of writing,—especially as his original is a pattern for correct composition: but we were miserably disappointed, even at the outset of his verses.

'Of all the animals that wing the air,
On earth that move, to ocean's depths repair,
From Paris to Peru—Rome to Japan,
The silliest animal, in my mind, is MAN.

'What, you'll directly say, an ant, a worm
That barely crawls, of life that's scarce the germ;
The bull that ruminates, the brousing goat,
Have they more sense than man? yes, without doubt.
You wonder, Doctor,—well, 'tis no such thing,
Man is of nature the great chief, the king.
Woods, fields, plains, animals, all on him bestow'd;
And he, alone, with reason is endow'd.

'True.—Reason ever was his boasted rule;
Thence I conclude that man's the greater fool.

'This may do well in your satiric page,
And suit the humour of a laughing age.
But to the proof, in form, come—I agree:
Answer then, Doctor, you the judge shall be.'

These lines certainly convey no representation of Boileau's manner, in any respect. A little farther, we find *enur'd* used as a rhime to *herd*; and the following verses, which the translator probably thought were smartly turned:

'The town has fools to laugh at without me,
Exclaim'd, last week, the yet untamed marquis;
Who, now entrapt, (a laudable example,)
Is cited of good husbands, as a sample.
Believes that God, expressly, for his sake,
Took a new rib, a faithful wife to make.'

This will never do; and we must beg the writer to exert his honest industry in some other calling, since he is utterly disqualified for any office on Parnassus.

Art. 37. *The Infidel and Christian Philosophers:* or the last Hours of Voltaire and Addison contrasted. A Poem. 4to. 1s. Verner and Hood.

The advantages of Christian Faith in the hour of death are indisputable; and since Infidelity cannot administer the consolation, at that period, which is to be derived from the Christian Revelation, the last moments of Voltaire and Addison must, as far as religious principles were concerned, have been materially different: but, though we should choose, for these strong reasons, to die the death of Addison rather than that of Voltaire, we doubt the truth of those accounts which some Romish Priests have given, of the closing scene of the French Philosopher's life. On the authority of the Abbé Barruel, it is thus described in the poem before us:

'Meanwhile, (all hopes of life or mercy lost,)
By various fierce contending passions tost,
Curse chasing curse, and groan succeeding groan,
Till Nature fails and Reason quits her throne,
VOLTAIRE, in stupor sunk, resigns his breath,
A dreadful victim to remorseless Death!'

To this delineation, the death-bed scene of Addison is opposed:

'Mark where Religion near him takes her stand,
And waves the olive sceptre in her hand!
His bed of sickness she with roses strews,
Illumes his prospects, elevates his views;
Bids scenes of soul-enchanting pleasures rise;
And, while yet breathing, wafts him to the skies!'

This poem, the verse of which is tolerably flowing, concludes with an address to those self-taught sages, the Infidel Philosophers.

Art. 38. *The Creation and Fall of Man.* A Poem. By John Palmer, Schoolmaster, Bath. 4to. 2s. 6d. Sold at Bath by Hazard.

Mr. Palmer is poor, and afflicted with the gout; and in this situation he is intitled to our pity and compassion. We should be happy to relieve his pains and fill his pocket: but, if we encourage him to write verse, though we may contribute to the former object, we fear that we shall not assist him in the latter. The public are too nice to receive any pleasure from such lines as these:

'Endow'd with sole command and lordly pow'r,
The richest fruits of Eden were their dow'r;
Save only one, whose taste mysterious could
The knowlege 'twixt, or good or ill unfold.'

'The fiend assum'd the subtle serpent's shape,
As most convenient to his purpos'd rape.'

We never before knew that Satan's object was to give Adam horns.

Art. 39. "*The Five first Stanzas of the Eighteenth Century, or the Parson's Pall.* A Satire. 4to. 6d. Crosby and Co.

As we were perusing this pamphlet, the parish bell-man came to us for his annual half-crown, and, unfortunately for the author of the Parson's Ball, left his usual poetical compliment on our table; we say unfortunately, because, after having read the Christmas rhimes

of

of our honest friend the bellman, the satirist before us appeared so low and vulgar in the comparison, that we threw down his verses as quite intolerable.

Art. 40. *The Curate,* an Elegiac Poem. By **** *******. 4to. 1s. 6d. Becket.

When the muse volunteers her services in a good cause, we are anxious that she should appear to the best advantage; since the success of her advocacy must in a great measure depend on the degree of pleasure which she excites. Partial to the object pursued in this poem, we wished to discover in it that superior merit which should create the warmest interest in the public mind, in behalf of the subordinate ministers of religion; who, let them be as temperate and self-denying as they may, cannot in these times be

"Passing rich with forty pounds a year."

Applauding, therefore, the motive of this writer, we feel no disposition towards what is said to be the pleasure of Reviewers, viz. finding fault. It must be confessed that, as a poem, the production is not without defects .but we shall excuse ourselves from pointing them out.—A sentiment, however, occurs in one of the lines, which, for the honour of religion, we cannot suffer to pass unreprobated.

'And God *delights* with grief to prove the Just.'

This is not good divinity. The Deity is indeed represented as exercising the virtuous with trials and afflictions, but never as taking delight in them. Sorrows 'prove the just,' not in order to give pleasure to the Creator, but to refine the piety of his creatures. This, we believe, is the doctrine which the poorest curates preach.

Art. 41. *The Poetical Works of Eaglesfield Smith, Esq.* 8vo. 5s. Boards. Johnson. 1802.

The author speaks modestly of these productions, and informs the reader that 'most of them were written to amuse the tedious hours of a French prison.' This is a very good apology for writing bad verses, but really affords no excuse for their publication; they should have been left in the prison, we conceive, for the amusement of the author's successors. We do not mean to say that Mr. Smith is totally destitute of fancy and invention, but he appears to have little taste or judgment, and he has taken no pains to correct and polish his productions. It is not often, indeed, that we have met with an instance of a writer coming in his own person before the public, in so slovenly an undress.

In the poem of William and Ellen, we have this account of a gang of banditti:

'A band of bearded ruffians fierce,
Had long by plunder thriv'd;
From man they nought but buffets had,
By neck or nothing liv'd.'

Also this animated description of two *Scotish* chieftains preparing for combat:

'Their bodies scarr'd, and *scratch'd*, and hard,
They scarce a clout had on;
Their hair and beards were long and rough,
Their feet as hard as horn.

'All filth they were, unwash'd and torn,
Their bodies black with hair;
And nought but bone and sinew left,
To 'bide th' inclement air.'

We shall add the following inspired stanzas only:

'But he is blest, his life's a feast,
Who can employ the mind;
Supremely *star'd* the happy bard,
Who idleness can find.

'Still loit'ring, *connoitring*
The ways of Nature's lore;
Enraptur'd, *encaptur'd*,
On Fancy's wings to soar.'

AGRICULTURE, &c.

Art. 42. *On the Improvement of Poor Soils*, read in the Holderness Agricultural Society June 6, 1796. In Answer to the following Question; "What is the best Method of Cultivating and Improving Poor Soils, where Lime and Manure cannot be had?" With an Appendix and Notes. By J. Alderson, M. D. 8vo. 2 s. Vernor and Hood.

With the practical discussion of the question proposed, Dr. A. blends a theory of the nature of vegetable nutrition, and he then avails himself of the principles of this theory, to enforce the advice which he suggests. The operations of vegetable life are supposed to resemble the chemical processes of combustion. As clay, chalk, and flint, by a due admixture in the crucible, assist each other's fusion or liquefaction, so a due admixture of these earths, presented to the mouths or radicles of plants, would render them (it is supposed) as capable of being converted by the action of the living principle into food, as they are of being fused by fire. On this idea, Dr. A. advises a constant attention to a due mixture of soils, in order to promote fertility. He says that soil taken generally, when divided into eight parts, ought to consist of the following proportions;—three parts clay, three of chalk, and three of flint in the form of sand; and where only one of these soils exists, barrenness must be the consequence. 'If I am asked (says he) how to improve the poor soil of a certain field, I should wish to ascertain the nature of its soil. If it be all clay, then it must have its proportion of chalk and sand added; and where these cannot be had, substitutes may be found.'

The hints which Dr. A. here offers to farmers result from his knowlege of chemical action; and the conclusion of his arguments is that, by a mixture of earths, so as to bring various particles into intimate union, by new combinations, and by a succession of plants dissimilar in habits to each other, the productiveness of land may be greatly increased, and the science of agriculture improved.

Art.

Art. 43. *The Garden Mushroom*, its most effectual general Culture thoroughly displayed, and now ultimately improved in its successful Production in a superior Degree of abundant Fertility and Perfection of Growth: Previously explaining its generative Process, and Production by Spawn; and with the Nature and Origin of the said Spawn, and its essential Utility in this Business: And to which is now added, the improved Method of generating occasional Supplies of good Spawn, by a cultural Process, equally eligible for spawning and fertilizing the proper Beds, agreeably to the Directions of the general Culture, whereby to obtain plenteous Productions of the true salutiferous Mushroom. By John Abercrombie. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Robinsons. 1802.

This verbose title page sufficiently explains the object of the publication; and the well-known name of the author will insure to it the attention of all who are interested in this species of culture. The fatal effects which have arisen from the indiscreet gathering of fungi in the fields had led to the cultivation of the garden mushroom, in which the horticulturist has now attained considerable skill. Mr. A. furnishes a description of the true wholesome mushroom, noticing the nature of its growth, the generative property of its spawn, and its supposed invisible seed. He next gives rules for collecting and procuring spawn, for making and managing the bed, for gathering the produce, and for general culture during the fruitful season.

Mr. A. generally observes that, where a regular succession of mushrooms is required, two new beds at least must be made and spawned annually, at five or six months interval; and that the principal bed ought to be made at the end of August, or in September or October.

POLITICS.

Art. 44. *The Statistical Breviary:* Shewing, on a Principle entirely New, the Resources of every State and Kingdom in Europe: Illustrated with Stained Copper-plate Charts, representing the Physical Powers of each distinct Nation with Ease and Perspicuity. By William Playfair. To which is added a similar Exhibition of the Ruling Powers of Hindostan. 8vo. pp. 64. 5s. Boards. Wallis, &c.

Mr. Playfair is advantageously known to the public by former works, and here presents it with a work in which much useful and curious information is condensed within a very narrow compass. Besides what the tables obviously communicate, a reader who is in any degree conversant in figures, on casting his eye over them, will be able to view states in various points of comparison, and to make out their relative situations with great nicety and accuracy.

The author is most probably founded in considering the late attempt to ascertain the population of Great Britain as futile, but it surely is rather bold to assign to the metropolis so considerable a number above that which the public calculation has recorded.

Speaking of this country, he observes:

'The use of machinery has been carried to an immense length, and its construction to great perfection, so that the labour of more than three millions of persons is performed by inanimate workmen, as they may be termed, who both toil and spin without requiring either food

or

or raiment, the keeping of which in repair, added to the interest of the first expence, does not amount to above three-halfpence a day on the labour of one person worth a shilling, the aggregate gain on which is three millions of French livres in one day, or £. 126,000!! It is owing chiefly to such inventions that this nation is able to support its great debts and annual expences.'

The fact mentioned in the following extracts has been stated before: but it never can be mentioned without exciting in every well-wisher to this grievously burthened country, the greatest degree of astonishment that such a pernicious anomaly should be allowed to exist, for a moment, in British policy. Speaking of the Indian trade, Mr. P. remarks:

'It is much to be regretted that British capital is not wholly employed in this lucrative branch of commerce, and that foreigners are permitted to carry off four-fifths of the whole. By extending the capital of the company, or by the introduction of the capital of other merchants of this country, subject to such rules and regulations which the East India Company, by their exclusive charter, have a right to impose, this circumstance might, in a great measure, be avoided.'—

'The commerce with the East, which is likewise the envy of all nations, and which, from the earliest period, has brought enemies upon every country that possessed it, is at present under a strange predicament. Our India Company appear to monopolize the whole of it; but in reality, such laws have been made to protect the company, that four fifths of it are estimated as banished, and in the hands of strangers, so that we who seem to engrosss all, have, in fact, only a very inferior portion.'

Art. 45. *The Political Interests of Great Britain:* In which are included the Necessary Measures for procuring an advantageous and permanent Peace with France and her Allies; for terminating our Differences with the Northern Confederate Powers, concerning the Freedom of Neutral Maritime Commerce, and restoring Plenty to the United Kingdom. By George Edwards, Esq. * 8vo. pp. 356. 7s. Boards. Johnson. 1801.

When more passengers offer themselves to be taken into a public vehicle than that vehicle is capable of holding, the necessary consequence is that some must be left behind; and when this case occurs as often as it sets out on its journey, it will sometimes happen that an unfortunate wight may not obtain a place till the professed object of his excursion is frustrated. Mr. Edwards's work seems to be in this predicament with respect to our notice of it: for it has been pushed aside from month to month, till the local and temporary circumstances, to which his observations refer, are passed away. Fortunately, however, though the title of his book announces it to be a temporary production, it will not be esteemed ephemeral by the considerate reader. There may be something romantic and visionary in several of his schemes; yet, in the explanation of his views and sentiments, he suggests many judicious hints and reflections.

* For a former work by Mr. E. see M. R. Vol. xxxiv. p. 213. N. S.

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'The peace, indeed, is made: but it is not less a matter of public importance for statesmen and others to consider that 'political wisdom requires, that all serious and important projects of public welfare be built on the perfection of common sense, proper executive means, and a really good heart.' Mr. E. farther remarks that, if politics were formed into a regular system, and the people of different countries were fully and familiarly acquainted with it, war would be a much rarer occurrence than it hitherto has been; for it is observable, that the most difficult part, in writing the history of the first wars of this or any other kingdom, is that of assigning satisfactory motives for their commencement. Indeed, Mr. E. undertakes to shew, that wars have more frequently originated in an illiberal policy than in any other motive; and he is so desirous of removing all causes of irritation which may generate future wars, that he even disapproves of 'our detention of the rock of Gibraltar, as a narrow-minded policy, as being a galling provocation to a generous people.' He condemns us also for 'indelicately and fatally interfering in the affairs of Europe, in a manner which neither our own interests, nor those of the nation we meant to benefit, could warrant.'—Such have been the habits of our statesmen, that they may not be willing to become Mr. Edwards's pupils: but the new circumstances in which Europe is placed may enforce the adoption of a new system of politics. Great Britain, he says, 'has been always the busy figure on the political stage, yet always unfortunate in the end, from her not forming designs adapted to her welfare, and multiplying them without end.' According to him, one great preventive of war would be the establishment of a principle in the law of nations, that belligerents should not seize the property of each other's subjects on the seas. There would certainly be equity in such a law: but, as long as war is war, it will be compounded of theft as well as murder. Many other preventives of war are mentioned, which we cannot enumerate.

The practical conduct which Mr. E. recommends is, to gratify the views* of France, and to combine her interests with those of Great Britain; and he strengthens this advice by remarks which, though they must be grating to our feelings, it may be prudent for us duly to consider.—Means of providing additional national power and strength are particularly specified; among which he recommends public liberty, an adequate representation, and the formation of a military people.—The author also undertakes to point out the mode of uniting, in an intimate manner, our external dominions to the metropolitan kingdom, and of strengthening the empire at large: but these, and his plans for preventing scarcity, we must pass over in silence.

Mr. Edwards concludes with explaining the term *royal republic*, as applied by him to the British constitution: but we shall not interfere with either his definition or the explanation.

BLAGDON CONTROVERSY.

Art. 46. *Candid Observations on Mrs. H. More's Schools; in which is considered their Supposed Connexion with Methodism. By*

* He would even have allowed her to possess Egypt, and settlements in the Levant.

the Rev. ——— ———, Rector of ———. 8vo. 9d. Hatchard, &c.

Considerable ability is manifested by the anonymous writer of these observations; who may be regarded as a zealous apologist and defender both of Mrs. More and the schools in question—With respect to the lady, his extraordinary esteem for her may be inferred from the following highly encomiastic expressions:

'To these worthy defenders of all that is near, dear, and sacred, may be added Mrs. H. More, whose masculine mind has towered, in dignified pre-eminence, above her sex. She presumed, unensured by heaven, to suspend "the balance of the sanctuary;" to her it was given to weigh the specific worth of the Fashionable World, to estimate the Religion of the Great; and the living Oracle sanctioned her pen when it wrote, "THOU ART WEIGHED IN THE BALANCES, AND ART FOUND WANTING!" She summoned, too, her own sex at the bar of religion, virtue, wisdom, prudence and honour; and with the holy authority of truth, she silenced the titterings of vanity, and commanded every female heart to vindicate, through its own empire, the sovereignty of religion and virtue.'

LAW.

Art. 47. *The Law of Copy-right*; being a Compendium of Acts of Parliament and Adjudged Cases, relative to Authors, Publishers, Printers, Artists, Musical Composers, and Print-sellers. By Joshua Montefiore. 8vo. pp. 60. 2s. 6d. Wallis. 1802.

The subject of this treatise is interesting to all men of liberal minds, but the manner in which it is executed will not furnish an additional recommendation; for the author has omitted a very important act, and erroneously stated the contents of the statute of Anne. This latter act confers on the authors of books then printed, and on their assignees, the sole right of printing them for the term of twenty-one years; and on the authors of books *then* composed, but not printed, and their assignees, the sole right of printing them for the term of *fourteen* years, and not for the term of *twenty-one* years, as is represented by Mr. Montefiore. The statute 41 Geo. III. c. 107, intitled, "an Act for the further Encouragement of Learning in the united Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, by securing the Copies and Copy-right of Printed Books to the Authors of such Books, or their Assigns for the time herein mentioned," gives, in express terms, a special action on the case, and double costs to the proprietor of any work unlawfully printed in any part of the united kingdom, or in *any* part of the *British* dominions in Europe; and provides that the offender shall forfeit such books to the proprietor, for him to damask and make waste paper of them.—It also enacts, that the offender shall forfeit 3d. per sheet for every sheet found in his custody, one half to his Majesty, and the other moiety to the common informer.—To maintain this latter action for the penalty, however, a previous entry of the work at Stationers' Hall is rendered necessary; and the action for damages given to the injured party, and the action for the penalties, must be both brought within six months after the commission of the offence.

It is observable that the statute of Anne did not give, *in express terms*, an action of damages to the proprietor: but such an action was holden to be maintainable on this principle, that, where the law bestows a right, it confers, at the same time, a remedy for the infringement of that right; and it was determined that no entry at Stationers' Hall was necessary to support the action.—In the statute of Anne, the penalty was 1d. a sheet, and the limitation of action was to three months.—By this last act of the present reign, two additional copies of books entered at Stationers' Hall shall be delivered there, for the use of Trinity College, and the King's Inns, Dublin.

The cases collected in this work are very few in number, and we think that the production bears evident marks of haste and inattention.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 48. *Welsh Legends:* A Collection of Popular Oral Tales. 8vo. 10s. 6d. (12mo. 6s.) Boards. Badcock. 1802.

If it be the object of a reader to escape the *ennui* which is incident to this dreary season, he will not have recourse in vain to this little volume: but if he looks for information respecting the transactions, opinions, habits, and manners of the antient people to whom these tales are said to relate, he will rise disappointed from the perusal of these pages. If the tales have really any other source than the author's own invention, if in fact they are founded on any traditions preserved in the wilds of Wales, they are so dressed out as to have lost every feature of their antique character.—With the structure, the interest, or the tendency of the narratives, we have no great fault to find; and if they did not claim relation to certain times and places, they would be little amenable to criticism, and not chargeable with those violations of propriety which at present deform them.

The second tale (which is in verse) flows in easy and smooth numbers, and contains a correct statement of the vulgar notions respecting the subject which it describes.

Art. 49. *Interesting Anecdotes of the heroic Conduct of Women during the French Revolution.* Translated from the French of M. Du Broca. 12mo. pp. 219. 5s. Boards. Symonds. 1802.

We can scarcely persuade ourselves that the scenes here described passed in our time, much less that they are recent: yet ten years have not elapsed since they were the events of the day regularly announced to us by the diurnal prints.

The Revolution in France certainly abounded in melancholy occurrences of the same kind with those here stated; and an authentic work, we are confident, would have been fully as interesting as that which is here presented to us, and far more satisfactory. We are sorry to be obliged to charge a production which so completely fixes the attention, and masters the feelings, with being very deficient on the score of accuracy: but, as specimens of its vulnerability on this point, it will be sufficient to mention that the author, in his account of Madame Elizabeth, truly states her to have been the sister of Louis

Louis XVI. and yet in the same paragraph adds that she was the youngest daughter of Louis XV. He also tells us that M. de la Rochefoucauld, who had no children, and who was massacred at Gisors in Normandy, (not far from his country seat,) was saved by the pious offices of a daughter; and survived the Revolution.

The most considerable part of this volume is taken from other accounts already before the public, and which possess much authenticity; this portion of it, therefore, may be in a great degree worthy of credit: but, as to any parts that are original in it, very little reliance can be placed on them;—and what readers will draw the line?

Art. 50. *The Friend of Women.* Translated from the French of Bourdier de Villemert. By Alexander Morrice. 8vo. pp. 164. 6s. Boards. Symonds. 1802.

Though Mr. Morrice is but an indifferent translator, he might certainly have employed himself better than on this vapid performance of M. Bourdier de Villemert. It is a cento of ill assorted maxims, taken from the moralists, satirists, and preachers of his country, and jumbled together without either selection or arrangement.—The moral tendency of the work is perfectly unexceptionable: but the precepts and examples are so ordinary and obvious, that we were frequently reminded of the famous "Tritical Essay," as we proceeded.

The translation certainly is not to be commended.—Mr. Morrice, we fear, understands French but imperfectly, and he is far from being master of English. Among other passages, for the meaning of which it would be necessary to consult the original, we insert this short one:

'A professed beauty is always curbed from a foolish thing, which makes her pass for equal with a wit upon record.'

Art. 51. *Observations on the Reply of the Right Reverend Dr. Caulfield, Roman Catholic Bishop,* and of the Roman Catholic Clergy of Wexford, to the Misrepresentations of Sir Richard Musgrave, Bart., and on other Writers who have animadverted on the Memoirs of the Irish Rebellions. By Sir Richard Musgrave, Bart. 8vo. 2s. Stockdale.

It is no mortification to us not to be recorded among the patrons and panegyrists of the work which its author here defends. On the contrary, we are proud of the distinction, which we certainly took some pains to deserve; for we valued more highly the discharge of the duty which we owed to the interests of truth, to the tranquillity of the empire, and to humanity at large. The public had anticipated us in our judgment, and it has since ratified it.

Did we, however, in these pages, meet with statements or reasonings which went to detect error, or to establish truth, we should either lay specimens of them before our readers, or make our report on them: but Sir Richard labours points which no one disputes. It is not denied that there were traitorous and disaffected priests, nor that the catholic multitude was bigoted and ferocious; nor will it be questioned that Popes and Councils of old have published blasphemies and treasons:—the matters to be settled between the

author

author and his antagonists are,—what was the proportion of these priests; was their brutal state most the fault of the deluded people, or of the late Irish Government; are intolerance and oppression the likeliest methods of reclaiming them; and are the catholics of these days chargeable with the sins and crimes of those of past times? Had the author made good the affirmative of these questions, he would have established the principles of his work.

Art. 52. *Memoirs of John Bacon, Esq. R.A.*; with Reflections drawn from a Review of his Moral and Religious Character. By Richard Cecil, A.M. Minister of St. John's, Bedford Row. 8vo. pp. 120. 2s. 6d. Boards. Rivingtons.

These memoirs appeared in the Gentleman's Magazine for September 1799, and have now received aditional facts and anecdotes, furnished by the family. Mr. Cecil has also illustrated his account by inserting whatever he could recollect of Mr. Bacon's habits in society, his turn of thinking, and his manner of expression. 'This addition,' Mr. C. properly observes, 'will not only more distinctly mark his character, but afford a gratification to his friends.'

The subject of this little biographical sketch was not only an eminent artist, but an amiable and respectable character in private life. If his religion savoured of Methodism, he did not deny to others the same liberty which he assumed, of thinking for himself on this important point; and he exemplified the sincerity of his belief by shewing himself humble and benevolent. His filial affection was a remarkable and truly distinguishing feature.—He was originally employed under Mr. Crispe of Bow Church-yard, to whom he had been bound apprentice, in painting on porcelain; and he never had an opportunity of improving his natural genius by a study of the antique.

'Mr. J—, an old acquaintance of Mr. B., heard Mr. West the present President of the Royal Academy say, when he saw the model of Mars (Mr. B.'s first statue), "If this is his first essay, what will this man attain to when he arrives at maturity?" The same friend also remembers that when Mr. B. was modelling the bust of his Majesty, the King asked him, "If he had ever been out of the kingdom?" Upon being aswered in the negative, his Majesty said, "I am glad of it—you will be a greater honour to it."

This tract is recommended by some interesting anecdotes, and serious reflections; and it is ornamented by a spirited likeness of this celebrated sculptor, engraved by Collyer from a picture by Russell.

Art. 53. *Eight Historical Tales, curious and instructive.* I. The unfortunate Damascenes. II. Jetzer. III. Arden of Feversham. IV. The Gowrie Conspiracy. V. Masaniello. VI. The Campden Wonder. VII. The Mysterious Letters. VIII. Ivan the Third. 12mo. pp. 290. 4s. 6d. Boards. Johnson.

The author of this little volume is of opinion that, 'if fairy tales and fabled romances can fascinate the youthful mind, there are facts recorded in authentic history, which are capable of communicating the same interest, and which may be read and remembered with higher advantage.'—Under this impression, the tales here enumerated are presented to the public, and to each of them are prefixed the authorities

authorities whence the information was derived. We think that they deserve to be called curious, but hesitate at the additional epithet of *instructive*, as applied to them *all*; we however readily allow that the observations, with which they are interspersed, are judicious and well founded.

The first tale relates the siege and capitulation of Damascus in the seventh century, and describes in glowing colours the bravery of the Saracens and the pitiable situation of the Damascenes, who were destroyed with relentless cruelty by their victorious invaders.—Jetzer, who was a Dominican lay brother at the beginning of the sixteenth century, remarkable for his credulity, and for the many deceits imposed on him by his order, gave us less pleasure in the perusal than any of the other histories; for we turn with disgust from the enumeration of the blasphemous frauds committed by these fraternities, all of which originated in selfish and ambitious views; at the same time that we entertain a doubt whether the recital be calculated to convey an useful lesson to the youthful mind.—The third story details the particulars of an horrid murder committed at Feversham in Kent in the reign of Edward the Sixth, on a gentleman of the name of Ardier, who was assassinated by his own wife. The materials are collected from Hollinshed's Chronicle, and Jacob's History of Feversham.—Of the Gowrie conspiracy, no new explanation is attempted; the narrative and the conjectures on the cause of that mysterious transaction are both taken from Robertson.—The whole account of Masaniello, a Neapolitan mariner, who effected a revolution at Naples in the year 1656, is interesting in the highest degree; and the moral deduced from it, pointing out the dangers of popular applause, is natural and excellent.—The Campden wonder is a narrative published in 1696, which relates the execution of three persons of the name of Perry for the supposed murder of a Mr. Harrison, who, several years after these people had suffered for the crime imputed to them, returned from abroad.—The mysterious letters are those which were addressed to the late Duke of Marlborough with the signature of Felton, and for which Mr. Barnard was tried and acquitted.—The last story in the collection contains a short view of the sufferings of Ivan the Third, the infant emperor of Russia, who was assassinated in the reign of the late empress Catherine; under circumstances that justified a suspicion of her having been acquainted with, and having encouraged the transaction.

CORRESPONDENCE.

*** The particular pressure of business, in this month of double duty, increased by contingent circumstances, obliges us to defer the consideration of various letters from Correspondents.

☞ The APPENDIX to Vol. XXXIX. of the MONTHLY REVIEW, *New Series*, containing the FOREIGN LITERATURE, *General Title*, *Table of Contents*, *and Index* for the Volume, is published at the same time with this Number.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For FEBRUARY, 1803.

ART. I. *Memoirs of Horatio, Lord Walpole;* selected from his Correspondence and Papers, and connected with the History of the Times from 1678 to 1757. By William Coxe, M.A. F.R.S. F.A.S. Rector of Bemerton. 4to. pp. 500. 3l. 3s. (5l. 5s. large Paper.) Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

THIS work may be considered as a continuation of Mr. Coxe's Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole, since it relates principally to the same period, and serves, from private documents, to dispel much of the darkness which hangs over the transactions of that busy and eventful time. Horatio Walpole was brother to the Minister, and was employed by him and his brother-in-law Lord Townshend in several negotiations of considerable difficulty; in which the exercise of great address and forbearance was necessary to conduct them to a happy conclusion. At the Hague, we view him conciliating the favour and securing the esteem of the pensionary Heinsius, and afterward of his successor the able but irritable Slingelandt. At Paris, we see him equally in the confidence of the Regent Orleans, of the Duke of Bourbon, and of Cardinal Fleury; who, notwithstanding his characteristic caution and timidity, treated him with unreserved openness and undisguised affection. In all these situations, Mr. Walpole discovered those talents which justified his appointment, and shewed that he was indebted for it as much to his merit, as to his near relationship with persons who were in power; while the length and sincerity of his services fully justified his subsequent elevation to the peerage, by the title of Baron Walpole of Wolterton, Norfolk.

In his preface, Mr. Coxe states that, having obtained access to the papers and correspondence of Lord Walpole at Wolterton, he found them so interesting and important, that he purposed to print a selection, preceded by a brief biographical narrative; and, from the following short view of the different offices which this minister filled, it is evident that such a work was calculated to gratify public curiosity, and to increase the stock

of general information, respecting a portion of English history on which few authentic documents have appeared:

'From an early period of his life, Lord Walpole was engaged in a public capacity. In 1706, he accompanied General Stanhope to Barcelona as Private Secretary, and was employed in various missions of consequence. In 1707, he was appointed Secretary to Mr. Boyle, first as Chancellor of the Exchequer, and afterwards as Secretary of State; and, in 1709, accompanied the Duke of Marlborough and Lord Townshend, who were Plenipotentiaries at the Congress of Gertruydenberg. Soon after the accession of George the First, he was successively Under Secretary of State, Secretary to the Treasury, and Envoy at the Hague, until the schism of the Whig Ministry, which terminated in the resignations of Lord Townshend and his brother, as well as his own.

'In 1720 he became Secretary to the Duke of Grafton, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland; was re-appointed Secretary to the Treasury, and again deputed to the Hague.

'In 1723 he commenced his Embassy to Paris; and continued to fill that important station until 1730. In 1733 he was nominated Embassador to the States General, and remained at the Hague until 1739, when he returned to England.

'During the whole period of Sir Robert Walpole's administration, Lord Walpole was an able and useful coadjutor to his brother, both in and out of Parliament; and was consulted in all business of State, particularly foreign transactions. During his residence abroad, besides official dispatches, he maintained a private intercourse of letters with his brother, and even a confidential correspondence with Queen Caroline, who reposed the fullest reliance on his talents and integrity.

'Although, from the time of his brother's resignation, he filled no official station; yet, in consequence of his abilities, experience, and weight among his party, he retained a considerable influence over many of the Ministers; he was confidentially consulted by Mr. Pelham and Lord Chancellor Hardwicke, and often gave his opinion in the most frank and unreserved manner to the Duke of Newcastle, to the Duke of Cumberland, and even to the King.

'The importance of his Correspondence and Papers will fully appear from this Sketch of his Life; and it would be difficult to point out another character, who, for so long a period, was more trusted with the secrets of government, more acquainted with the motives and springs of action, and who possessed more influence in the direction of foreign and domestic affairs.'

Mr. Coxe was obliged, however, to relinquish his design, on account of the magnitude of the undertaking; from the fear 'that so extensive a publication, consisting principally of state-papers, would not have a sale sufficient to repay the necessary expences;' and instead of that work, he now submits to the world the present production.—The important documents found at Wolterton occupy 160 large volumes, and comprize,

'L. Mr.

'I. Mr. Walpole's correspondence with George the Second, Queen Caroline, and the other branches of the Royal Family, at different periods of his life.

'II. His official and private correspondence with Sir Robert Walpole, the Secretaries of State and Foreign Ministers, from the commencement of his political career, to the resignation of his brother.

'III. Letters of the most private and interesting nature, which passed between Mr. Walpole, the Duke of Newcastle, Mr. Pelham, Mr. Trevor, Lord Chancellor Hardwicke, the Hon. Philip Yorke, late Earl of Hardwicke, and others, from the period of Sir Robert Walpole's resignation to his own death.

'IV. A numerous collection of Deductions, Memorials, Projects, and Observations, on a variety of political subjects; together with the draughts of several speeches in Parliament.

'V. Mr. Walpole's Apology. This authentic document, written by himself towards the latter end of his life, and still preserved in his own hand-writing, contains a candid and lively narrative of his transactions from 1715 to 1739.

'Among these articles I have principally availed myself,

'1. Of his Apology, the greater part of which is printed in these Memoirs.

'2. Of his extensive Correspondence during his Embassy at Paris.

'3. Of that part of his Correspondence with Queen Caroline, and the other branches of the Royal Family, which was not printed in the Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole, particularly his interesting letters to the Duke of Cumberland in 1746 and 1747.

'4. His Miscellaneous Correspondence, from 1742 to 1757.

'5. Thoughts on the Utility of an Alliance with Prussia, occasioned by the approaching death of the King, 1740.—Project of a Grand Alliance, founded upon a good understanding between his Majesty and the King of Prussia, Oct. 5, 1740.—Rhapsody of Foreign Politics, occasioned by the conclusion of the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, and that with Spain in 1750; and other documents, which are referred to in the course of the narrative.

'6. The substance of a Speech on the question for continuing the Hanover troops in the pay of Great Britain, 1743.—Substance of a Speech in the Committee of Supply, on the demand of the Empress-Queen for £.100,000, 1749.—Mr Walpole's Speech in a Committee of the whole House, upon a motion that a sum not exceeding £.32,000 be granted to his Majesty, to make good his engagements with the King of Poland, Elector of Saxony, by treaty, 1752.'

In addition to these sources of information, the author has had recourse to various others enumerated in the Preface; to the Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole, particularly the Orford, Waldegrave, Grantham, Harrington, Melcombe, and Keene Papers; to the Hardwicke and the Etough Papers; and to those which belonged to the first Lord Hampden, and to Sir Charles Hanbury Williams.

As this period of English history has lately passed in review before us in our account of Sir Robert Walpole's Memoirs*, we shall content ourselves on the present occasion with making such extracts as, we trust, will most gratify our readers, and will point out to them the manner in which the work is executed. For the great skill and address which were manifested by Mr. Walpole in several of his embassies, we must refer to the volume; since the detail of the particulars, which required the exertion of these qualities, is too long for our insertion.

The author's short account of the Duke of Orleans, and of the state of politics in the two countries in the year 1723, when Mr. Walpole was sent to Paris, will tend to point out the objects of his mission, and some of the difficulties which he then had to encounter:

'Philip duke of Orleans, who is better distinguished by the title of Regent of France, was son of Philip duke of Orleans, brother of Louis the Fourteenth, by Elizabeth of Bavaria his second wife. He was born in 1674, and gave striking proofs of quick comprehension, lively parts, and great talents. At an early period he highly distinguished himself in the military line; at the age of seventeen he was intrusted with the command of the corps de reserve at the battle of Steinkirk, where he was wounded in the shoulder; and at the battle of Nerwinden in 1693, he displayed heroic intrepidity, and was five times surrounded by the enemy. In 1706 he commanded the French army at the celebrated siege of Turin, and had his advice been followed, according to the honourable testimony of prince Eugene himself, the siege would not have been raised. Instead of waiting the approach of the enemy within the lines, which were too extensive to be defended, he proposed to lead the army to the attack, but was over-ruled in a council of war, and thwarted by the obstinacy of Marchin, and the jealousy of La Feuillade. But when the lines were forced, and the French army thrown into confusion, when Marchin was taken prisoner, and La Feuillade overwhelmed with despair was incapable of acting, the duke of Orleans resumed the command, and made the most heroic exertions. Though twice wounded he continued in the hottest of the action, and when the troops gave way, called the officers by their names, animated the soldiers by his voice, and led the troops repeatedly to the charge. Overcome at length by pain, and weakened by loss of blood, he was compelled to retire until his wounds were dressed; but instantly returned to the field of battle, performed the duties of a general and a soldier, and when the disorder and confusion became irreparable, by his presence of mind and skill saved the remnant of the army. The king and nation did justice to his military talents, and the successful campaign which he made in Spain increased his reputation.

'Having incurred, by his sarcastic railleries, the ill will of the princess Ursini, and of madame de Maintenon, and excited the jea-

* See M.R. Vol. xxvi. N.S. p. 538.

lousy

lousy of Philip the Fifth by aspiring to the crown of Spain, he lost the command, and was never afterwards employed by Louis the Fourteenth.

'Being thus reduced to a state of inactivity and disgrace, he gave a loose to his passions, and broke out into those infamous excesses which disgrace his memory, and to which he was instigated by the example and encouragement of his preceptor du Bois. If it were possible to draw a veil over these enormities, no prince was ever more highly distinguished for personal accomplishments, engaging manners, winning affability, charms of conversation, and love of science: even in the midst of his excesses, he was adored by all ranks of people, who attributed his vices to du Bois, and his virtues to himself.

'The vindictive spirit of madame de Maintenon followed him in his retirement; the premature deaths of the dauphin, the dukes of Burgundy and Berry were attributed to poison, and the duke of Orleans was accused of an intention to secure the crown of France by the murder of the whole royal family. These infamous reports were countenanced by madame de Maintenon for the advancement of her darling the duke of Maine, and made a deep impression on the mind of Louis the Fourteenth. In consequence of these ill-grounded suspicions, and from a misplaced affection to his natural son the duke of Maine, the king, by his will, instead of declaring the duke of Orleans sole regent, restricted his authority by a council of regency, and by intrusting to the duke of Maine the protection of the young sovereign's person, the superintendance of his education, the command of his guard, and the government of his household. But this will being annulled by parliament, through the influence, and on the representations of the duke of Orleans, he was declared sole regent, with more enlarged powers. The first acts of his administration were to appoint seven councils for the management of public affairs, and to hold a bed of justice, in which the king assisted to confirm the new regulations.

'The peculiar situations of the duke of Orleans and George the First changed the discordant politics of the two cabinets, and united the interests of England and France. By the treaty of Utrecht it was stipulated, that the crowns of France and Spain should never be joined in the same person; and Philip duke of Anjou was acknowledged king of Spain on renouncing his right to the crown of France, which was to devolve on the duke of Orleans should Louis the Fifteenth die without issue male. The young monarch being of a sickly constitution, this event was not improbable; and Philip, notwithstanding his renunciation, entertained designs of ascending the throne of France, and was countenanced by a considerable party in the kingdom. Hence the duke of Orleans, threatened with the loss of the succession, favourably received the overtures of England as the only power able to support his right, and George the First was equally anxious to conciliate the friendship of France, as the principal means of counteracting the schemes of the jacobites, and annihilating the hopes of the pretender. When their interests thus concurred, it was not difficult to adjust the conditions of a treaty of al-

lianee; after a few obstacles and delays, occasioned by the volatile character of the regent, a negotiation was commenced by the earl of Stair at Paris, continued by Mr. Walpole and Chateauneuf the French minister at the Hague, and finally concluded by secretary Stanhope and du Bois the confidential friend of the regent.

'The principal articles of the treaty which formed the bond of union between the two countries, were, on the side of the regent, to send the pretender beyond the Alps; and on the part of George the First, to guaranty, in conformity with the peace of Utrecht, the eventual succession of the house of Orleans to the crown of France. This singular alliance, concluded on the 21st of August 1716, formed the commencement of a new æra in the political annals of Europe, and united the rival powers of France and England, whose enmity had deluged Europe with blood, and whose union produced a long and unexampled period of peace and tranquillity.'

Of the Cardinal du Bois, who has justly been represented as infamous for his vices, though erroneously described as a man without abilities, a brief sketch is given; which we shall transcribe, as interesting on account of the influence which he possessed over the mind and conduct of the regent:

'William du Bois, who thus attained the highest station in church and state, was the son of an apothecary in Limousin, and was born in 1656. Chance having made him sub-preceptor to the duke of Orleans, his supple temper, insinuating manners, versatile talents, and indefatigable perseverance in promoting his own views, raised him to the highest honours and employments of the State. The notorious infamy of his private character has induced superficial observers to deny him abilities which he really possessed, and not sufficiently to appreciate his capacity for public business, and talents for negotiation.

'In fact he did not solely gain the favour of his pupil by flattering his passions and pandering to his vices, but he inspired him with a love of science, rendered natural philosophy easy and familiar, and instructed him in political knowledge. He also accompanied the young prince in some of his campaigns, and displayed at the battle of Steinkirk a striking instance of personal valour and humanity. Marshal Luxembourg, who commanded in that memorable engagement, said to Louis the Fourteenth, who mentioned that the Abbé Pelisson died without confession, "I know another Abbé who might die in the same situation." "Who?" enquired the king. "The Abbé du Bois," returned Luxembourg, "who intrepidly exposed himself to danger in the battle of Steinkirk. I met him in every part of the field." At the conclusion of the engagment he prevailed on the duke of Chartres to give orders for the removal and care of the wounded; he wrote also an account of the battle with equal spirit and precision, and his letter pleased and surprised Louis the Fourteenth.

'St. Simon has in his Memoirs agreeably detailed the circumstances of his extraordinary rise; but, in drawing his portrait, has delineated his vices, and forgotten his abilities. Marshal Villars, however,

ever, speaks more favourably of his public character. During the last year of his life, the enormous load of public business, and the ill state of his health, rendered him incapable of executing the duties of his office with his accustomed facility. The affairs of State were consequently in great disorder at his death, and hence, perhaps, arose the imputation of negligence and incapacity.'

The archbishopric of Cambray becoming vacant, Du Bois coveted that high dignity:

'But finding the regent disinclined to promote a person of his dissolute character, to a see recently filled by the venerable Fenelon; du Bois adopted the same plan which he followed in regard to the cardinal's hat. He wrote to des Touches, the French agent at London, to request that George the First would apply to the regent. The king, on receiving the application, burst into laughter: "Sire," said des Touches, who was in great favour with the king, "I feel no less than your majesty the singularity of the application; but it will be of the greatest importance to my interest to obtain it." "How," replied George, continuing to laugh, "shall a protestant prince interfere in making an archbishop of France? The regent himself will laugh, and pay no attention to my recommendation." "Excuse me, Sire," returned des Touches, "he will laugh indeed, but he will grant it; first out of respect to your majesty, and secondly for its singularity. Besides, du Bois is the person on whom my future condition in life totally depends, he will ruin me if I do not obtain from your majesty an urgent letter on this occasion; here it is already written; and the kindness with which your majesty has honoured me, leads me to hope that you will not refuse your signature." "Give it me," said the king, "since it will be of so much service to you;" and he signed it. The dispatch was immediately forwarded; the regent was convinced that du Bois had suggested this measure; but his appointment did not the less take place.'

On the death of the Regent, the Duke of Bourbon succeeded to the situation of prime minister, with talents very inadequate to such an appointment. He was entirely governed by Madame de Prié, his mistress; and though he retained the ministers employed by the duke of Orleans, yet the efficient agents in his weak and short-lived administration were four brothers of the name of Paris, whose rapid rise and singular adventures are recorded by St. Simon:

'Their father kept a solitary inn at the foot of the Alps, in a narrow pass leading to Italy. His four sons, who followed the occupation of muleteers, were active, industrious, and intelligent, and performed essential service by transporting provisions and forage across the mountains, to the army of the duke de Vendome in Italy, who, by the delay of his commissary, had been prevented from opening the campaign. The activity and zeal of the four brothers attracted notice; they were again employed, made great profits, and gradually became contractors themselves. After raising considerable fortunes

they repaired to Paris, where their talents were rewarded, and they were employed in the department of the finances, under the duke of Noailles and Argenson.

'During the regency, Law had great difficulty in suppressing their credit and influence; but on the overthrow of his system, to which they greatly contributed, they again rose into power. They principally directed the administration of the finances, under Pelletier de la Houssaie, who was made comptroller-general in 1720, and Dodun, who succeeded him in 1722; they were often consulted by du Bois, and noticed by the duke of Orleans. Being protected by madame de Prié, their authority was paramount under the administration of the duke of Bourbon. The eldest was distinguished by the name of Paris; the second was called la Montagne, from the sign of his father's inn; the third, Montmartel; and the fourth, Duverney, who had served as a common soldier, and was the most remarkable for his address and influence.'

As the Bishop of Frejus, afterward Cardinal Fleury, had so great an influence on the conduct of the French cabinet, and indeed on the politics of Europe, we shall present to our readers the author's account of this extraordinary and respectable prelate:

'Andrew Hercules de Fleury, was son of a receiver of tythes in the diocese of Lodeve, in the province of Languedoc. He was born on the 22d of June 1653, and discovering early signs of quick comprehension, was sent to Paris, at the age of six, and prosecuted his studies with great assiduity and success, under the Jesuits, and in the school of Harcourt. He distinguished himself by his public dissertations in Latin and Greek, in which he explained, with considerable learning, the principal doctrines of the Athenian philosophers. Being destined to the church, he obtained, in 1668, a canonry of Montpellier, by the recommendation of Pierre de Bonzi, bishop of Beziers, whose protection his father had acquired. This prelate, afterwards better known under the title of cardinal de Bonzi, archbishop of Narbonne, and grand almoner to the queen, was fascinated with the rising talents and insinuating address of young Fleury, introduced him at court, and procured for him the appointment of chaplain to the queen of Louis the Fourteenth, at the age of twenty. On the death of the queen, he was nominated, by the same interest, chaplain to the king. Under the auspices of his powerful protector, he was introduced to the first societies of Paris, and increased the favourable impression of a pleasing figure and fascinating countenance, by the amenity of his manners, the charms of his conversation, and the discretion of his conduct.

'These amiable qualities, which acquired him many friends, among the first persons of the realm, for some time retarded his promotion. Louis the Fourteenth was displeased with his courtly manners and general acquaintance, which appeared to him marks of dissipation, and in reply to the numerous applications for a bishopric, said, "Fleury has too many friends, and is too much a man of the world to fulfil the duties of an episcopal station."

'Fleury

'Fleury submitted patiently to these disappointments, and was at length, by the importunity of the archbishop of Paris, promoted to the see of Frejus, in Provence. Retiring to his bishopric, he performed his professional duties with extreme regularity, tempered the dignity of his high office with his characteristic suavity of disposition, liquidated, by the strictest œconomy, the debts which his predecessors had entailed upon the diocese, and rendered himself equally beloved and respected.

'He performed the most essential service to the town and district of Frejus, when Victor Amadeus, duke of Savoy, and prince Eugene, led a considerable army against Toulon. The inhabitants of Frejus, alarmed at the approach of the enemy, were preparing to retire, but were prevented by the bishop, whose interposition with the duke of Savoy saved the town from pillage on the payment of a moderate contribution.

'During three days, which the duke and prince Eugene passed in the episcopal palace, they distinguished the bishop with uncommon marks of attention; and Victor Amadeus was so much delighted with his conversation and manners, that he pressed him to accept the office of governor to his son, afterwards Charles Emanuel the First, an honour which the bishop declined; but he offended Louis the Fourteenth by performing Te Deum in the cathedral of Frejus, and publicly offering the holy water to the duke of Savoy, which was maliciously represented as an act of rejoicing for the success of his arms; circumstances which added obstacles to his further promotion.

'During his residence in his bishopric, he collected various memorials relating to the revenue, and the improvement of several branches of commerce, manufactures, and agriculture, which increased his political knowledge. He did not totally bury himself in his diocese; but made occasional excursions, appeared at court, and in the capital, and kept alive his antient connexions, particularly with the families of Noailles and Villeroy, to whom he principally owed his subsequent elevation.

'Louis the Fourteenth, having, at the instigation of madam de Maintenon, made by will an act of settlement for the government of the kingdom, during the minority of his grandson, which divided the administration, and the care of the young king's person, between the dukes of Orleans and Maine, under the controul of a council of regency, appointed marshall Villeroy governor; but was embarrassed in the choice of a preceptor, who was capable of that important trust, and calculated to conciliate the different parties. After much hesitation and difficulty he was induced, by the importunity of marshal Villeroy, to nominate Fleury, who, aware of this arrangement, had recently resigned the bishopric of Frejus for the abby of Tournus.

'Although the duke of Orleans, on the death of Louis the Fourteenth, annulled the will of the monarch, and assumed the sole regency; yet he confirmed the appointment of the governor and preceptor. During the turbulent and intriguing period of the regency, Fleury conducted himself with such circumspection as to give no umbrage

umbrage to the duke of Orleans or the cardinal du Bois; he entered into no cabals, he made no applications, either for himself or his friends; but seemed wholly attentive to fulfil the duties of his trust, and instantly gained an uncommon influence over the mind of his royal pupil. In the course of his employment, he omitted no opportunity of obtaining information on the domestic and foreign affairs of France, thus qualifying himself for the station which he afterwards attained.

'The disgrace of his patron marshall Villeroy, which seemed likely to involve him in the same catastrophe, contributed to strengthen his influence, and perpetuate his power. Informed of Villeroy's arrest, he precipitately quitted the court, and retired to Baville, a seat belonging to his friend de Lamoignon. The young king, deeply afflicted with the loss of his governor and preceptor, refused all sustenance, took no rest, and endangered his life by the excess of his grief. In this alarming situation, the retreat of Fleury being either purposely or accidentally discovered, a letter from the king, affectionately urging his return, and another from the regent, in terms no less flattering, after some affected delays, drew him to Versailles, where his presence instantly restored the king to health and tranquillity. He resumed his office, under the duke of Charost, the new governor: and though he suffered the imputation of ingratitude for deserting his former benefactor; yet he secretly exulted in the removal of an imperious master, and anticipated the most glorious prospects of future elevation.

'Soon after this event, Fleury gave a proof of great disinterestedness, or still greater ambition, by declining the archbishopric of Rheims, the first station in the kingdom, except that of a prince of the blood; declaring to the regent, who pressed him to accept it, that he preferred his station about the king's person, and in the council, to all the dignities upon earth. It is likewise a striking proof, either of his prudence or his integrity, that he did not supplant the duke of Orleans, and accept the office of prime minister, offered him by the king, on the death of cardinal du Bois. He seems to have stood in awe of the regent; and even before the disgrace of his patron Villeroy, he seldom ventured, and not without great apparent diffidence, to be present in the cabinet, when the duke of Orleans transacted business with the king, and concealed his views under an air of candour and simplicity.

'Hitherto Fleury, adhering to his unobtrusive manner, had kept in the back ground; hut he now became a prominent figure in the French administration. His abilities, however, were at this period so little appreciated, that he was merely considered as a learned bigot, wholly ignorant of foreign politics. Even Mr. Walpole, notwithstanding his discernment of character, did not at first sufficiently appreciate the independence and spirit of Fleury. Although he mentions him in his first dispatch to lord Townshend as a man of great learning, abilities, and credit with the king; yet he also considered him as a creature and spy of the duke of Orleans.'

Some

Some extracts from letters of Mr. Walpole to his brother and Lord Townshend at this period are very interesting, and give a distinct view of the state of the French court; they are too long for introduction in our pages, but they will amply compensate a reader for any time which he may bestow on them. In no situation does Mr. Walpole manifest more ability and management than in his conduct towards Lord Bolingbroke; who, "sad outcast of each church and state," was endeavouring to conciliate the King's ministers, after having deserted the cause of the Pretender. It was undesireable to offend him by entirely rejecting his services; and it was more inexpedient to accept of them to any great extent, because such obligations might have furnished him with a claim on the gratitude of ministers, and have led to his complete pardon and restoration. The following observation of Mr. Coxe, relative to this nobleman, deserves to be recorded:

'I have in a former work given anecdotes of lord Bolingbroke, and endeavoured to account for the motives which induced Sir Robert Walpole to promote the bill for restoring him to his family inheritance, and enabling him to purchase estates within the kingdom. I likewise observed, that he owed this favour to the influence of the duchess of Kendal, whom he had bribed with 11,000 l. and that the minister promoted the bill in conformity with the express injunctions of the king. But, for want of authentic documents, I could not ascertain whether the failure of his complete restoration was owing to the opposition of Sir Robert Walpole. Some papers, however, which have since fallen under my notice, prove that the minister was threatened with his dismission if he did not promote the return of Bolingbroke, and that he compromised the business by consenting to the restitution of his family estate; but counteracted and prevented his complete restoration; a fact which sufficiently accounts for the indignation of Bolingbroke, and his unceasing enmity to the character and administration of Sir Robert Walpole.

'This exclusion of Bolingbroke from a seat in the house of peers, which might again have placed in his hands the helm of State, called forth the warm eulogium of archbishop Herring, who observes in a letter to Etough, "Bolingbroke was so abandoned in all respects, that I have always and shall reverence Sir Robert Walpole for setting his face full against him."

The late Lord Orford, in his catalogue of royal and noble authors, says that Bolingbroke "wrote against Sir Robert Walpole, who did forgive him."—He first injured him, however, to the very extent of his power, and then forgave him; and we cannot, under such circumstances, wonder at the resentment of Bolingbroke, nor at the severe censure which he bestows on his successful rival.

We meet in this work with a passage relative to the marriage of Lewis XV., which affords but too accurate a type of most royal

royal matches. The Infanta of Spain, to whom he had been engaged, was dismissed, and some doubts were entertained respecting the person who should be elevated to the dignity of queen; an English princess was the object at one time, but the difference of religion was an effectual bar to that measure; and the duke of Bourbon harboured ambitious hopes in favour of his sister, but these were hopes which Fleury was interested in disappointing. Maria Letzinski, daughter of Stanislaus king of Poland, who was twenty-two years of age, not deficient in beauty, and whose situation and character seemed likely to render her wholly dependent on those who should contribute to her elevation, was ultimately selected by the minister and madame de Prié. 'To this choice,' remarks Mr. Coxe, 'Fleury made no opposition, and, *as the king testified a total indifference*, the marriage was solemnized on the 15th of August.'

In the year 1736, Mr. Walpole accompanied George II. to Hanover in the capacity of secretary of state; and here we have an anecdote which distinctly shews the fearlessness of the King's temper, and the dangers to which he unnecessarily exposed himself and others:

'In December Mr. Walpole quitted Hanover, and accompanied the king to Helvoetsluys, where they were detained by contrary winds. At length the king, impatient to depart, ordered Sir Charles Wager to put to sea, which the admiral declining on account of an approaching storm, his majesty replied, "I have never seen a storm;" and repeated his commands in so peremptory a manner that Sir Charles was obliged to obey. The king embarked on board the royal yacht, and sailed under convoy of several men of war. They had scarcely got out to sea before a storm arose, which dispersed the ships; several were driven on the coast of England, the Louisa was wrecked, and it was supposed the yacht could not weather the storm. So great was the alarm, that the cabinet council met at the duke of Devonshire's, steward of the household, and preparation was made to issue the proclamation for the accession of the prince of Wales.

'On Sunday morning, the queen being at St. James's chapel, a messenger brought a letter announcing the safe arrival of the king at Helvoetsluys. Lord Lifford, who had just returned from walking in the garden, met the messenger, took the packet, went into the church, and delivered it to the queen, saying, "Here is news from the king!" All present were filled with apprehension; the queen was alarmed, and her hand shook so much that she could not open the letter. The duke of Grafton accordingly broke the seal, and immediately declared that the king was safe. This good news was instantly circulated, the service, which had been suspended, was continued, and satisfaction restored.

'A letter

"A letter from the princess Amelia to Mr. Walpole will display the general alarm at the king's danger, and the joy at the news of his safety:

"December 28. You have been very good and obliging, my good Mr. Walpole, to take the trouble of writing to me, and I assure you my joy is too great to be exprest, that you are all safe at Helvoet. What mama underwent, ever since Friday last, can't be imagined; for she never was easy since she heard that the sloop of the English Secretary's office was come here with so much difficulty, and that they had left you all at sea. But a Sunday morning, before nine, Sir Robert came to mama to give her the dreadful account of the three men of war being come, and lord Augustus's ship without masts or sails; then you may imagine what we all felt. We went to church as usual, and about two the messenger came in, and made not only mama and her children happy, but indeed every body. The consternation was great before, and they seemed all to dread to hear some bad news; but now pray be careful, and don't get out till you are sure of seeing our sweet faces, and then we will all make you as welcome as we can; for I cannot afford any more to be so frightened, for we are all still half dead.

"I pitied poor Mrs. Walpole extremely; but I saw her yesterday, and we thanked God heartily together that you are all safe. Sir Robert hath been very childish, for he drank more than he should upon the arrival of the messenger, and felt something of the gout that same night; but he is perfectly well again. I hunted with him yesterday at Richmond, and he was in excellent spirits.

"I thank you, dear Horace, for letting me know so exactly how my sister does; I am very happy she is so well. Mama commands me to make you her compliments; Caroline desires her's to be given you also, and I remain your sincere friend upon land, but hate you at sea; for you take my stomach and rest away, and I love both eating and sleeping."

In 1756, Mr. Walpole was raised to the peerage: but he did not long enjoy this distinction, for in the February of the following year he was seized with an excruciating fit of the stone, a disorder to which he had been subject in early life, and died on the fifth of that month, at the advanced age of seventy-nine. A character of this nobleman is to be found in Tindal's continuation of Rapin; and with an additional one, furnished by the late Earl of Hardwicke, we shall conclude our extracts from Mr. Coxe's volumes.

"Mr. Robinson (afterwards lord Grantham) was secretary to Mr. Walpole, embassador in France. The annals of this country will record the abilities of both; and the editor, with gratitude, remembers the friendship and confidence with which they indulged him. Mr. Walpole had the greatest weight with cardinal Fleury, till Monsieur Chauvelin gained the ascendant over him, and then the former desired to be recalled from his station. His dispatches (were they published) would do credit to his unwearied zeal, industry, and capacity.

pacity. He was a great master of the commercial and political interests of this country; he was deservedly raised to the peerage in 1756, and died soon after. It was the fashion of the opposition of this time, to say, that he was the dupe of cardinal Fleury; his correspondence would shew, no man was ever less so. He negotiated with firmness and address; and, with the love of peace, which was the system of his brother, Sir Robert, he never lost sight of that great object, keeping up the sources of national strength and wealth. One of the most cordial leave-takings, which any public minister ever had, was that which he exchanged with the states-general in 1739, on presenting his letters of recall."

Our ample extracts will shew that this work is both amusing and instructive; and it is ornamented with twenty-two portraits of persons who were eminent at the period of which it treats.

ART. II. *The Works of Solomon Gessner*, translated from the German. With some Account of his Life and Writings. 3 Vols. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

WE have here the first complete English translation of the compositions of this distinguished writer. The public, however, have frequently been enabled to form a judgment of the genius and powers of Gessner, from the appearance of some of his most popular works in our language. The *Death of Abel*, which was printed in the year 1758, and was noticed in our 26th volume, raised the reputation of its author to an eminence beyond which it has never been carried; in his earlier and in his subsequent productions, he is remarkable for pastoral simplicity, and for his descriptions of rural happiness: but, in his *Death of Abel*, he has, according to the editor, 'passed his accustomed boundaries, and risen to the sublimity of the Epic Muse.'

These volumes contain some matter that is new, as well as much that has before been presented to the public: but we shall confine our attention to the parts that are original.—In the translator's preface, we find several particulars of the life of this amiable man, interspersed with observations on his compositions which reflect much credit on the judgement and taste of the writer. We wish that the sketch had been enlarged, because we are interested in the life of so remarkable a character; and the abilities of the present biographer are here shewn to be fully adequate to the task. From this account, we shall make an extract:

'Of this little republic (namely of Swisserland) was Solomon Gessner, the German Theocritus; he was born at Zurich in the year 1730, and was the son of a respectable printer and bookseller, from

from whom he received a liberal, and even a learned education, whose profession he adopted, and whom in due time he succeeded. Fortunately the house of Orel, Gessner, and Company, into which he was received, had been long established, and was known over Europe, by the extent of its correspondence, and by the choice and elegance of the works which it gave to the world. Gessner was not therefore involved in the cares of a new establishment, nor was it necessary for him to engage in the details and fatigues of business; and the bent of his genius being obvious, his partners, by whom he was beloved and esteemed, freely indulged him in his favourite studies and pursuits.

'In the twenty-second year of his age he made a tour through Germany, in part for the purpose of extending the connexions of his house, but chiefly with a view to his own improvement. In the course of this journey, he became acquainted with the greater part of the German men of letters of that day, and his talents were doubtless stimulated by the sympathy and the emulation which such intercourse is so particularly calculated to excite. On his return to Zurich in 1753, he gave his first publication to the world, a small poem in measured prose, entitled, *Night*; and this meeting a favourable reception, he soon afterwards published his pastoral romance of *Daphnis*, in three cantos. In the first of these poems he contrived to introduce a compliment to Gleim and Hagedorn, from whom he had received civility and kindness in the course of his tour. To Daphnis he prefixed a letter to himself from Mademoiselle ——, with his reply, both written in a playful and animated stile, from which we are led to believe, that the heroine of this pastoral was a real personage. "Yes," says Gessner, in the language of gallantry, and perhaps of truth, "while I described Phillis I thought of you, and the happy idea of writing a romance, supplied me with a continual dream of you, which rendered our separation less intolerable." In these early productions, with somewhat of the irregularity and the extravagance of youth, we find that luxuriance of imagery, and that soft amenity of sentiment and of expression, by which almost all his other writings are characterized. At this period of his life, Ovid seems to have been a favourite with Gessner. In his *Night*, we have a fable on the origin of the glow-worm; and in his *Daphnis*, an episode on the amours of a water god and a nymph, entirely in the manner of that poet.

'The success of these publications encouraged Gessner to indulge his taste in rural poetry, and to give to the world his Idyls, in which, as he himself informs us, he took Theocritus for his model. The Idyls procured their author a high reputation throughout Switzerland and Germany. They were the principal and favourite objects of his attention, on which he exerted great taste and skill. They are described by himself as the fruits of some of his happiest hours; of those hours, when imagination and tranquillity shed their sweetest influence over him, and excluding all present impressions, recalled the charms and delights of the golden age.

'The *Death of Abel*, which is already well known to the English reader, by the translation of Mrs. Collyer, made its first appearance

in 1758. Its reception was still more flattering. Three editions of it were published at Zurich in the course of a single year, and it was soon translated into all the European languages. In most of these it has gone through various editions; and there are few of the productions of the century that has just elapsed, which have been so generally popular.—After this he published several of his lesser poems, among which was *The First Navigator*, which is perhaps the most beautiful of his works. He made some attempts likewise in the pastoral drama, of which his *Evander and Alcimna* is the chief. His *Erastus*, a drama of one act, was represented with some applause in several societies, both at Leipsick and Vienna.

'The poems of Gessner were almost all given to the world before he had completed his thirtieth year. About this period he married; and, as he himself informs us, his father-in law, Mr. Heidigger, having a beautiful collection of paintings, consisting chiefly of the works of the great masters of the Flemish school, he devoted his leisure to the study of their beauties, and became deeply enamoured of their art. Gessner, who in his youth had received some lessons in drawing, resumed the pencil, but with a timid hand. At first he ventured only to delineate decorations for curious books printed at his office, but by degrees he rose to bolder attempts. In 1765 he published ten landscapes, etched and engraved by himself. Twelve other pieces of the same nature appeared in 1769; and he afterwards executed ornaments for many publications that issued from his press, among which were his own works, a translation into German of the works of Swift, and various others. The reputation which he acquired by his pencil, was scarcely inferior to that arising from his pen. He was reckoned among the best artists of Germany; and Mr. Fuselin, his countryman, in his "Historical Essay on the Painters, Engravers, Architects, and Sculptors, who have done honour to Switzerland," gives a distinguished place to Gessner, though then alive.

'The private character of Gessner was in a high degree amiable and exemplary. As a husband, a father, and a friend, his virtues were equally conspicuous.—His cast of mind was pensive, and even melancholy; his manners gentle.—In conversation he was mild and affable, and where the subject admitted of it, often highly animated, rising into great elevation of sentiment, and beauty of expression. But in every part of his deportment, there was that unaffected sincerity, that simplicity and modesty, by which true genius is so generally distinguished. With qualities such as these, Gessner could not fail to be loved and respected; and uniting to taste and literature the talents requisite for active life, he was raised by the suffrages of the citizens of Zurich to the first offices in the republic. In 1765 he was called to the great council; in 1767 to the lesser. In 1768 he was appointed bailiff of Eilibach; that of the four guards in 1776; and in 1781, superintendant of waters, all offices of trust and responsibility, the duties of which he discharged with scrupulous fidelity.

'The fame of the accomplished and virtuous magistrate of Zurich, spread to the remotest parts of Europe. The Empress of Russia, Catharine

Catharine II. sent him a gold medal as a mark of her esteem; and strangers from all countries visiting Switzerland courted his society, and gave him the most flattering proofs of their respect and admiration. In the height of his reputation he was cut off by the stroke of a palsy, on the 2d of March, 1788, in the 56th year of his age.'

The first volume contains *The Death of Abel*, and a *Letter on Landscape Painting* addressed to Mr. Fuesslin, author of the Lives of the most celebrated Swiss Painters. This letter, which discovers many indications of a refined taste, gives an account of the course which Gessner had taken, and the means which he had pursued, to acquire some proficiency in the arts of painting and drawing. 'My natural inclination,' he observes, 'led me to landscape; and I sought with ardour the means of excelling in this species of design.' After having stated the different masters whom he studied with the view of copying nature with effect, (for a mere imitation of nature, without such previous aid, he represents as insufficient and delusive,) he breaks out into the following animated account of their respective merits:

'I found in the landscapes of Everdingen, that rural simplicity which pleases, even amid scenes where the greatest variety reigns. In his designs, I found impetuous torrents, craggy rocks overgrown with brush-wood and tangled shrubs; and smiling retreats, in which contented poverty has fixed its rural abode. Boldness, and taste, and originality were conspicuous in all his works. Yet I did not take him for my only model. Dietrich, I thought, afforded better examples of the manner in which rocks ought to be painted. The pieces he has composed of this kind are of such excellence, that one is ready to pronounce them to be Everdingen's; but to agree, that he has surpassed himself.

'I admired the dignity of Swanefeld's designs, and the striking effect of his execution. I studied his reflected lights, which fell in so picturesque a manner on the large masses of his shades. The bold genius of Salvator Rosa, astonished and delighted me; and Rubens, charmed by the brilliancy of his colouring, the originality of his compositions, and the bold choice of his subjects. I studied all these masters, I made slight copies from their designs, and thus formed a collection of their best ideas. But the two Poussins and Claud Lorrain at last possessed me entirely. It was in their works, that I found the truly great and beautiful: not a servile imitation of nature, but a selection of all the most simple and beautiful objects she affords. A poetic genius, united in the two Poussins all that is great and noble. They carry us back to those times, for which history, and especially poetry, fill us with veneration. They transport us into those countries, where nature is not wild, but luxuriant; and where, under the happiest climate, every plant acquires its utmost perfection. The buildings which adorn the pictures of these celebrated artists, are in the true style of ancient architecture: and the figures by which they are peopled, have all the grace and dignity of

demeanour, which our imaginations, warmed to enthusiasm by the history of their great actions, attributes to the Greeks and Romans.

'Grace and tranquillity reign throughout all the scenes which the magic pencil of Claud Lorrain has created: the view of his pictures awakens in us that same enthusiasm, that same tranquil but delicious emotion, with which we contemplate a beautiful and extended prospect in nature. His plains are luxuriant without confusion, and variegated without disorder: every object sooths us with the idea of repose and tranquillity. The scene of his landscapes is placed amid a delightful soil, which lavishes on its inhabitants its bounteous and spontaneous gifts; under a sky, ever bright and serene, beneath whose mild influence all things bloom and flourish.'

The truth of the following observation is illustrated by the example of Pope: for it is well known that he "pilfered snug" on many occasions from obscure writers, whose hints and suggestions he always improved into acknowleged beauties:

'And here I will mention an advantage which may be sometimes derived from studying the works of an indifferent artist; though I cannot recommend the practice to any except those whose taste is already formed. An indifferent picture will often suggest an idea, which may be heightened and improved to become of value. Thus, in the poems of Ramler, we sometimes meet a thought borrowed from an inferior writer, improved into a striking beauty, by his skill in heightening, and his judgment in applying it. The works of Merian, to whom little justice has been done, contain detached beauties, selected with the greatest skill from nature, and only disguised by the tame and insipid style of his execution. Give to his trees and grounds the lightness of Waterloo; insert among his rocks, and the whole of his compositions, more variety; and you will see brilliant effects arise, whose splendour and harmony will do honour to genius, and of which the disposition and ground-work are all to be found in Merian.'

We conclude our extracts from this pleasing and judicious performance, with quoting the merited praise which the writer has bestowed on Thomson and a poet of his own country. After having remarked the advantages which painting may derive from an intimate acquaintance with poetry, they being truly sister-arts, he exclaims; 'How many painters would choose their subjects with more taste! how many poets would give more truth, more life, and animation to their descriptions, if the knowlege of these two arts was more frequently united!'

'I pity (Gessner proceeds to say,) the artist who can read Thomson without emotion, and contemplate, uninspired, the beautiful pictures exhibited in his works. I have found in the writings of this great master, descriptions which might have been copied from the works of the most eminent painters, and which the artist might with ease transpose again on the canvass. His pictures are not more beautiful

tiful than they are various; they are sometimes finished with the pastoral simplicity of Berghem, Potter, or Rooss; they sometimes exhibit the grace and amenity of Lorrain, or are characterised by the noble and sublime of Poussin's style, or the wildness and melancholy of Salvator Rosa's.

'And here let me seize the opportunity of paying a tribute to the memory of a poet, now almost forgotten:—Brockes, who marked out a distinct species of poetry for himself; who followed nature in her most minute details; whose mind was exquisitely sensible to every natural beauty and charm, and whose fine feelings were wrought upon by the most trifling circumstances. A plant, covered with dew, and illuminated by a bright ray of the sun, was sufficient to inspire him; his descriptions are often too artful, and too laboured; but his works in general are a rich magazine of ideas and images borrowed from nature, and copied by a most faithful pencil. They remind us of objects and of circumstances which we have ourselves remarked, and which we recognise again with increased pleasure.'

The second volume contains the Idyls, and some of Gessner's Miscellaneous Pieces. On former occasions*, we noticed the Idyls; which are so generally known and admired, that we shall detain our readers no longer than while we transcribe the character given of them by Dr. Blair:

"Of all the moderns, Gessner, a poet of Switzerland, has been the most successful in his pastoral compositions. He has introduced into his Idyls (as he entitles them) many new ideas.—His rural scenery is often striking, and his descriptions lively. He presents pastoral life to us with all the embellishments of which it is susceptible, but without any excess of refinement.—What forms the chief merit of this poet, is, that he wrote to the heart, and has enriched the subjects of his Idyls with incidents that gave rise to much tender sentiment. Scenes of domestic felicity are beautifully painted. The mutual affection of husbands and wives, of parents and children, of brothers and sisters, as well as of lovers, are displayed in a pleasing and touching manner. Not understanding his language, I can be no judge of the poetry of his style, but in the subject and conduct of his pastorals, he appears to me to have out-done all the moderns."—

'The style of Gessner,' observes the translator, 'on which Dr. Blair declines giving an opinion, appears to me to be pure, easy, and perspicuous, altogether free from those inversions and contortions which are found in the *Death of Abel*, as translated by Mrs. Collyer, and which give it so forced and unnatural an air. The style of the Idyls particularly is polished with the utmost care, and discovers an elegance, yet simplicity of expression, perfectly suited to the characters and manners which are described.'

Among the miscellanies, we observe *The First Navigator*, which the present translator considers as one of the most beau-

* See M. R. vols. xxvii. and lv.

tiful of Gessner's productions.—*Daphnis*, *Evander and Alcimna*, *Erastus*, *the Deluge*, and *the Wish*, occupy the third volume. Of the first we gave an account from a French translation by Mr. Hubner in our 30th volume. *Evander and Alcimna*, and *Erastus*, are two pleasing dramatic performances, in which the author displays the same affection for rural scenery, and the same pleasure in describing domestic happiness, which characterize his other works. *The Deluge* contains much pathos; and the description with which it abounds is grand and striking. In *the Wish*, we have a portrait of the mind of the author, who was not less amiable for his virtues than respectable for his genius. A retired situation in the country, remote from the tumults and the vices of the town, where a taste for study and reflection might be cultivated, and where a fondness for the beauties of nature might be indulged, is the moderate wish of this pleasing and instructive writer.

The translation of these pieces is easy and elegant; the volumes are handsomely and correctly printed; and they are ornamented with several designs from the pencil of Scothard. To the first volume, is prefixed also a portrait of the author.

Art. III. *Entomologia Britannica, sistens Insecta Britanniæ Indigena, secundùm Methodum Linnæanam Disposita. Auctore* Thomâ Marsham, *Soc. Linn. Lond. Thesaurario*, &c. *Tomus I.* 8vo. 16s. Boards. White. 1802.

In the list of unequivocal patriots, we may rank the peaceful and persevering few, who employ their leisure and talents in ascertaining the natural productions of their country, and in pointing to the primary materials of the industry, wealth, and improvement of a state. With respect to our own island, much has been already effected in the mining art; though many subterraneous regions, rich, perhaps, in useful fossil substances, remain to be explored:—the labours of the late Dr. Withering, and the more recent and actual exertions of the discerning and indefatigable president of the Linnéan Society, have been successfully directed to our indigenous plants;—while Pennant and other distinguished naturalists have arranged and described most of our known quadrupeds, birds, and fishes.—The smaller animals, also, though less immediately subservient to the purposes of human life, are well worthy of a distinct and accurate arrangement. A knowlege of their history will best enable us to effect the multiplication or diminution of their numbers, according as they may contribute to our accommodation or annoyance. In many species, observation may detect properties and uses hitherto unknown; and, in all, we

we may trace that astonishing intelligence and that unwearied care, which extend from the first order of created beings to the meanest insect which flutters for an hour.

We regard a scientific view of British entomology as a public benefit, and a valuable substitute for the faint sketches of Ray, Berkenhout, and Forster. Convinced that the intended term of three years would be very inadequate to the completion of his design, Mr. Marsham fortunately embraced the resolution of discussing one order before he entered on another; and he now presents us with a systematic catalogue of the *Coleopterous* insects, or such as have their wings covered with two cases, and divided by a longitudinal suture.

For obvious reasons (stated in the preface), the author rejects the Fabrician mode of arrangement, and adds sixteen genera to those laid down by Linné:

'It is with extreme reluctance (he says *) that I presume to detract from the merits of such truly respectable entomologists as Fabricius and Olivier.—Language, I well know, cannot express the extent of their services, nor the gratitude of naturalists repay them. From the various repositories of Europe, they have collected and admirably described such multitudes of insects, that I cannot venture even to compare this humble treatise with their more ample works. I disapprove of their generic marks, chiefly because I conceive them to be unfit for the purposes of the learner; whom I am desirous of alluring to the study of my favourite science by smoothing and adorning its paths. On this account, I have not hesitated to adopt several genera instituted by other writers, and even to add to the Linnéan catalogue two of my own formation. If, after all, I have unconsciously fallen into greater errors than those which I was anxious to avoid, I must earnestly request of the reader to favour a first essay with his indulgence.'

Handsome compliments of acknowlegement are presented to Sir Joseph Banks, Dr. Smith, Mr. Kirby, &c.; and Mr. M'Leay's friendly and persevering assistance is recorded in terms of the warmest gratitude.

Though we despair of conveying to our readers, in the compass of a few pages, just or precise notions of a work like the present, it may be proper briefly to state the author's general plan, to exemplify his mode of procedure, to indicate at least the numerical amount of his labours, and to subjoin some cursory remarks.

The first five pages contain a summary of the generic distributions and characters. The latter, with their subdivisions (if any), again occur at the head of the specific details. These last usually consist of the characters of the species, copious and accurate references to the most approved authorities, the

* We translate this passage.

ordinary dimensions of the individuals, their habitations (when known), the collections in which they are preserved, a neat technical specific description, and, occasionally, the addition of a critical note or observation. We transcribe, as an example, the article *Cicindela Campestris:*

'1. *Cic. viridis, elytris punctis quinque albis.*

'*Linn. Syst. Nat.* 657. 1. *Faun. Suec.* 746. *Vill.* i. 320. 1. *Gmel.* 1920. 1. *Scop.* 181. *Fab. Syst. Ent.* 124. 1. *Sp. Ins.* i. 283. 3. *Mant.* i. 185. 5. *Ent. Syst.* i. a. 170. 9. *Panz. Ent. Germ.* 67. 2. *Payk Faun. Suec.* i. 170. 1. *Harr.* 220. *Poda*, 42. 1. *Pontop.* i. 676. 14. *Faun. Ingr.* 80 *Faun. Fred.* 17. 173. *Act. Nidros.* iii. 398. 19. *Faun. Etruse.* 475. *Hellw.* 475. *Illiger. Kugel. Kaf. Preus.* 220. 3.

'*Don. Brit. Ins. t.* 12. *De Geer*, iv. 113. 1, *t.* 4. *f.* 1. *Schæff. Icon. t.* 24. *f.* 8. 9 et *t.* 28. *f.* 3. *Bergstraes. Nom.* ii. 15. 8. 11. *t.* 2. *f.* 8—11. *Oliv.* ii. 33. 11. 8. *t.* 1, *f.* 3. a. b. c.

'*Le Velours vert à 12 points blancs.* Geoff. i. 153. 27.

'*Arenarius viridis.* Panz. Voet. ii. 96. 4. *t.* 40. *f.* 4.

'*Long. corp.* 6 *lin.*

'*Habitat in campis arenosis.*

'DESCR. *Inter Coleoptera certè hæc species unica ex præstantissimis dici debet, cum aureus nitor ex toto corpore radiet, vel sericeo fulgeat. Elytra suprà viridia, planiuscula, lævia, punctis aliquot albis notata; quorum primum ad baseos angulum; secundum rotundum prope marginem; tertium lunulatum prope marginem; quartum oblongum ad marginem; quintum intra tertium, seu in medio elytri, reliquis interius; præter hæc et apex elytrorum albicat. Alæ fuscæ. Thorax angustus, rotundatus, viridi-nitens. Caput aureo-viride, depresso vertice. Oculi nigri, prominentes. Os prominens. Labium superius obtusum, album. Maxillæ superiores prominentes; dentibus plurimis validis; inferiores maxillæ apice unico dente armatæ, sub his palporum duo paria, quorum superius constat articulis duobus, inferius quaternis. Labii inferioris loco palpi bini ex binis articulis pilosis. Abdomen viridi aureum. Pedes longissimi, tenuissimi; ad basin femorum corpus quoddam ovale, durum. Antennæ corpore breviores,* 10 *articulis.* Faun. Suec.'

In a great variety of instances, we have noted Mr. Marsham's happy talents of discrimination: but we must confine our extracts to two passages:

'*Quoniam plurimus apud auctores de* Histeribus unicolore æneo *Fabricii et* pygmæo *error valuit, hic saltem liceat observare, quod* unicolor *et* æneus *mirè variant magnitudine majori, et quadruplo minori. Varietas autem minor* unicoloris *et* æneï *pro* pygmæo *sæpiùs assumpta fuit; Linnæus ipse in* Syst. Nat. *varietatem minorem* His. æneï pygmæum *esse voluit. At aliter in* Faun. Suec. *res sese habet.* His. pygmæus, *magis oblongus, sive elongatus, magnitudine pediculi majoris. Elytra subpicea, nec vel sub lente striata, lævissima, longitudine ferè abdominis. Pedes picei.—Linnæus in* Faun. Suec. *hunc non obscurè innuit.*'

Again;

'Obs. *Duo quæ præcedunt insecta,* Dytiscus elegans *et* 12-pustulatus, *valdè affinia sunt, (forsitan ex sexu solummodò differre putes,) adeò*

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ut perdifficile est rectè dijudicare. Auctores ad quos de Dyt. eleganti *relatum est, icones hujusce speciei fidissimas sanè exhibuerunt, at* 12-pustulatum *neque descripserunt neque adumbraverunt. Contra autem Olivier utrumque depinxit, quasi alterutrum unum idemque animal, aut saltem quasi hæc duo mera ejusdem species fuerint varietates. His autem omnibus ritè perpensis, visum est tutius fore, si species distinctas dicam, donec dies tandem dubitationem melior ademerit.* Dyt. 12-pustulatus $\frac{1}{3}$ *major* Dyt. eleganti *evadit, et apud nos rarus admodum; duo specimina tantùm hactenus mihi contigit videre; hæc duo autem eodem tempore et ab eâdem manu capta fuerunt.* Dyt. elegans *vulgaris est, capiendusque in ferè omni aquâ stagnali.*'

The following table presents, in the first column, the number and order of the respective genera, as treated in the volume; in the second, their names; in the third, the number of real or supposed species belonging to each; and, in the fourth, the number of these species registered for the first time in a regular catalogue:

1. *Scarabæus.*	80.	12.	25. *Curculio.*	234.	124.
2. *Lucanus.*	5.	0.	26. *Attelabus.*	3.	0.
3. *Ips.*	27.	15.	27. *Clerus.*	5.	1.
4. *Dermestes.*	68.	45.	28. *Cerambyx.*	25.	0.
5. *Ptinus.*	32.	17.	29. *Leptura.*	37.	7.
6. *Hister.*	19.	5.	30. *Necydalis.*	8.	1.
7. *Gyrinus.*	4.	3.	31. *Lampyris.*	3.	0.
8. *Byrrhus.*	3.	1.	32. *Pyrochroa.*	2.	8.
9. *Cistela.*	11.	6.	33. *Cantharis.*	22.	6.
10. *Corticaria.*	23.	14.	34. *Elater.*	35.	10.
11. *Silpha.*	44.	20.	35. *Cicindela.*	10.	0.
12. *Nitidula.*	29.	13.	36. *Buprestis.*	7.	0.
13. *Bolstaria.*	8.	3.	37. *Parnus,*	1.	0.
14. *Opatrum.*	3.	0.	38. *Heterocenus.*	1.	0.
15. *Cassida.*	11.	2.	39. *Hydrophilus.*	28.	14.
16. *Coccinella.*	51.	9.	40. *Dytiscus.*	49.	18.
17. *Chrysomela.*	92.	25.	41. *Carabus.*	109.	40.
18. *Cryptocephalus*	14.	2.	42. *Tenebrio.*	12.	4.
19. *Auchenia.*	12.	0.	43. *Blaps.*	5.	3.
20. *Crioceris.*	26.	11.	44. *Meloe.*	6.	4.
21. *Tillus.*	5.	1.	45. *Lytta.*	8.	1.
22. *Hispa.*	2.	0.	46. *Mordella,*	24.	14.
23. *Scaphidium.*	5.	2.	47. *Staphylinus.*	87.	31.
24. *Bruchus.*	4.	1.	48. *Forficula.*	4.	2.

For a large proportion of the hitherto uncatalogued kinds, the author is indebted to Mr. Kirby, in whose collection the specimens are preserved. Miss Hill, of Tavistock, has also contributed not a little to augment the list of the rarer species.

Considered as a whole, this volume is evidently characterized by lucid arrangement, accurate description, and profound entomological research. Future leisure may be usefully employed

in rendering it accessible to mere English readers; and in subjoining to the characters of such of the species as have been most observed, relations of their habits and dispositions:—in the meanwhile, the classical student may here, with comparative ease and success, cultivate an acquaintance with the British *Coleoptera*. If, in some instances, Mr. Marsham betrays a disposition to multiply species, yet, in many more, a careful inspection of the originals, or even of Panzer's excellent plates, will justify his distinctions. Of *Coccinella*, in particular, a genus very incident to varieties, such sorts only have been registered as have been observed to retain the same marks in every soil and situation.

Coinciding with de Geer, the author distributes the numerous tribes of scarabs into three families, according as they inhabit the ground, trees, or flowers. The *Cylindricus* he has removed to the succeeding genus *Lucanus*; authorized by the aspect and habits of the insect, and by the examples of Scopoli and Laicharting. By identifying the genuine *Conspurcatus* of Linné with Panzer's *Sticticus*, he settles a point which had suggested much doubtful conjecture and assertion. The *Lunaris* and *Emarginatus*, which Linné had confounded under the former appellation, are here restored to their separate ranks.

The two tubercles on the head of *Lucanus parallelipipedus* are considered as distinctive of sex only; though the fact may require to be more accurately ascertained.

Cistela nigra of Forster is presumed to be the *dorsalis*, stripped of its down.

Curculio caliginosus is ranked with hesitation among British insects, the author having seen only one specimen in Dandrige's collection, in the British Museum. A prevalent error relative to *Curculio cerasi* is exposed in page 294, where obvious distinctions are noted between it and *atramentarius*.

Satisfactory discriminations are likewise established among the various species of *Carabus*, a numerous and intricate genus. Mr. Marsham's *distans* corresponds to *Tenebrio fossor* of Linné, *Attelabus fossor* of de Geer, and *Scarites arenarius* of Fabricius.

The new trivial names are, for the most part, selected with propriety: but we would object to *Dermestes* RUFIPES; because another insect, described by Fabricius and Thunberg, is already inserted in the Gmelinian edition of the System of Nature, under the same designation. *Dermestes* MARGINATUS (*Sphæridium marginatum* of Fabricius) also differs from the insect so denominated by Gmelin.

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A very rigid collation might even detect some omissions in the lists of references: but the general excellence of the work more than atones for such slight and almost unavoidable imperfections.

ART. IV. *Ornithological Dictionary;* or Alphabetical Synopsis of British Birds. By George Montagu, F.L.S. 8vo. 2 Vols. 16s. Boards. White. 1802.

To give to British Ornithology a popular and commodious form is an object well intitled to the praise of good intention; and few, we believe, are better qualified than Mr. Montagu, to execute the task with credit to himself and utility to the public. As a book of reference and consultation, this Dictionary is calculated to suit the occasions of ordinary readers, and even to convey instruction to the learned student. We must, however, take the liberty of adverting to several violations of grammar and errors of the press, which a small degree of care might have prevented; and, as counsel for the public, we also beg leave to suggest that some obvious expedients respecting the type, &c. might have reduced the work to half of its present size and price.

The design of these volumes is thus explained in the introduction:

'The variety of publications on Ornithology are as extensive as instructive; but the difficulty of discovering any particular species in the works of an author, where the bird is called by a different name from which it may be provincially denominated, has, we conceive, been a preventive to a more enlarged investigation of that part of the natural history of our country. To persons well acquainted with the generic characters, the difficulty may not be so great; but the general part of mankind might wade through volumes before they would find the object of their inquiry. For such persons, therefore, who are desirous of being better acquainted with the most beautiful part of the animal creation, we have published the following Dictionary of British Ornithology, in hopes of advancing knowledge on the subject.

'Of the various writers on British Ornithology, the public are particularly indebted to Mr. Pennant, who has not only been diffuse on the subject, but has given a great variety of excellent figures. The last edition of the *British Zoology* is replete with information, and far exceeds the bounds of any thing written before on the subject of English birds. Since which the *General Synopsis of Birds*, published by Dr. Latham, has added much new light to this branch of history; which, together with his *Index Ornithologicus*, is a masterpiece of erudition and knowledge. But these are too extensive and too complex for the more confined part of the science or study of British birds, and too expensive for general use.'

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The Cuckow, faithful even on paper to its native habits, having secured a lodgement in the introduction, excludes the concerns of others of the feathered tribes. The details are, no doubt, curious and interesting, but they should not have interfered with general topics; especially as they might have been inserted with more propriety in the body of the work.—If Mr. M. notwithstanding his long and intimate acquaintance with the history of birds, be really unqualified (as he modestly insinuates) to treat of their anatomical structure, Mauduit and others might have furnished him with suitable abstracts, and thus have rendered his book more complete.

Among a very few omissions, we have had occasion to remark the *Penrith Ouzel*, Latham's *Sguucco Heron* (*ardea comata*), and the *Equestrian Sand-piper* (*Tringa equestris* of the Index Ornithologicus, and *Chevalier commun* of Buffon.) Since recent observations seem to indicate that the *Brown Tern* actually belongs to the Gull genus, and it is denominated *Brown gull* in Latham's second supplement, we expected a reference from *Gull-brown* not only to *Gull-skua*, but to *Tern-brown*. In his enumeration of the few known haunts of the *Kittiwake*, Mr. M. might have inserted the isle of May in Edinburgh Frith, where they have been seen in great flocks, during the breeding season. Lewin's *Kentish Plover* is too slightly treated as a variety of the ringed species; its black bill and legs being alone sufficient to mark a distinction.

While, however, we perceive a few defects, we are by no means blind to the more striking merits of the compilation. The synonyms and specific descriptions evince much diligence and accuracy; and various articles are enriched by the result of personal observation and extensive travel. Sufficiently aware of the fallible indications of plumage, the writer is more anxious to reduce than to multiply distinctions. His nomenclature of Gulls, Larks, and Sand-pipers, for example, is less perplexing than those of his precursors; though, if we mistake not, it may admit still farther elucidation and retrenchment. In doubtful cases, he sometimes has had recourse to the unequivocal test of dissection; and, by adopting the mode of establishing specific characters from the conformation of the trachea, or wind-pipe, so ably illustrated by Dr. Latham in the Linnéan Transactions, he is enabled to point out satisfactory criteria.

Respecting the *Marsh* and *Cole-titmouse*, which faunists of high authority had regarded as varieties, Mr. Montagu very properly remarks that attention to the mode of nestling will discover a specific difference. Without a careful inspection of the original, we pretend not to solve the alleged doubts relative

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to the *ash-coloured Falcon*, though we are inclined to believe that it is only a variety of Gmelin's *Falco hyemalis*. Mr. Willughby's *Beam-bird* is shrewdly conjectured to be the *Muscipula grisola*, known in some districts by the name of *Rafter*, and not *Motacilla Hippolais*, as Pennant had conceived. Notwithstanding the received opinion, the evidence of dissection has warranted Mr. M. to assert that the black patch on the throat of the *Grey wagtail* is no exclusive attribute of the male, both sexes having been found with and without this mark. On the first appearance of this bird, in September, not one is to be seen with it; whereas, in March, none occur without it, though in the female it be less conspicuous.

Dr. Latham's supposed identity of the *black-billed Auk* and *Razor-bill* is justly questioned:

'Dr. Latham, in his Synopsis, mentions his suspicion, that this is no other than the Razor-bill immatured; and, in his Index Ornithologicus, gives it as the young of that bird. We cannot, however, but differ in opinion from that excellent ornithologist, by late observations on the young of the Razor-bill, before and after they could fly, which differ only from the parent bird in having no furrows in the bill; being destitute of the white line from the bill to the eye, and no white on the secondary quill-feathers; but the whole head and upper part of the neck is black; which is the essential difference between that bird and the Black-billed Auk. This is only found on our coasts in winter. The Razor-bill breeds with us, and retires in the autumn, at which time none are to be found with the white cheeks and throat amongst the myriads that haunt our cliffs. It is hardly possible, then, to conceive that the young, who are in their first feathers so like the old ones, should become more unlike them in winter, which is contrary to nature; for observation has taught us, that all birds become more like their parents at every moulting; so that to make these birds one and the same species, we must conclude both old and young change their plumage in winter: but this we have no reason at present to believe. And indeed it is probable, that whatever change may take place, that singular line in the matured Razor-bill, running from the bill to the eye, never varies; and which constitutes one of the greatest characteristic distinctions. The black part of the plumage of this bird is invariably deeper-coloured than in the Razor-bill, particularly about the head. From these observations, we are inclined to give each a separate place in this work, as a distinct species.'

Of the common Pheasant, it is observed that,

'In confinement, the female sometimes assumes the plumage of the male; at this time she becomes barren, and is equally buffeted by both sexes. This strange change of plumage does not seem to be the effect of age, for we have been assured by our noble friend Lord Carnarvon, who has had several in that state, that it takes place at three or four years old. In the one that nobleman favoured

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tus with, the colours were not so bright as generally found in the other sex. Whether barrenness is the occasion of this change, or whether the want of commerce with the other sex, by reason of the male plumage, is the occasion of her not breeding, is yet to be discovered by dissection; for if in the breeding season there should appear any eggs in the ovarium, and those distended, there can be no doubt of the latter cause. In a state of nature, this circumstance probably does not take place.'

The Pea-hen has more than once been known to undergo a similar transformation.

The following minutes with regard to the *Ring-Dove* deserve particular notice:

'We have been at considerable pains to endeavour to domesticate this bird; and though we have tamed them within doors so as to be exceedingly troublesome, yet we never could produce a breed, either by themselves or with the tame Pigeon. Two were bred up together with a male Pigeon, and were so tame as to eat out of the hand; but as they shewed no signs of prolificacy in the spring, were suffered to take their liberty in the month of June, by opening the window of the room in which they were confined, thinking the Pigeon might induce them to return to their usual place of abode, either for food or to roost; but they instantly took to their natural habits, and we saw no more of them, although the pigeon continued to return. We shall here mention a curious assemblage we once bred up, and which lived together in perfect amity: A common Pigeon, Ring Dove, White Owl, and Sparrow Hawk; of which the Ring Dove was master.'

In proportion as we become acquainted with the ways and manners of various animals, we are induced to believe that, so far from being impelled by blind undeviating instinct, they can adapt their operations to changes of circumstance:

'We have been assured (says Mr. M.) by a person of undoubted veracity, that a half-domesticated Duck made a nest in Rumford Tower, hatched her young, and brought them down in safety to a piece of water at a considerable distance. Others have been known to breed in trees; and we recollect the nest of this bird being found in the head of an old pollard willow impending the water, from whence the young might readily drop unhurt into their natural element.'

For the gratification of our readers, we shall also extract the account of the *Cirl-Bunting*, of which a handsome coloured engraving is prefixed to the first volume:

'BUNTING CIRL.

'Emberiza Cirlus. *Lin. Syst.* i. p. 311. 12. *Gmel. Syst.* ii. p. 879. *Raii Syn.* p. 93, 4. *Will.* p. 196. *Ind. Orn.* i. p. 401. 10.

'Le Bruant de haye. *Buf.* iv. p. 347. *Plan. Enl.* 653. f. 1. 2.

'Cirl Bunting. *Lath. Syn.* iii. p. 190. 26.

'Emberiza sepiaria. *Brit.* iii. p. 263. 2.—*Ib.* 8vo. i. p. 383.

'The

'The length of this species is six inches and a half; weight about seven drachms. The bill is of a bluish lead-colour above, paler beneath; irides hazel. The crown of the head, nape of the neck, and upper part of the breast, is of a fine olive-green, the first streaked with dusky; from the upper mandible through the eye a dusky stroke; above and beneath the eye a bright yellow one; throat black, slightly tipped with brown, running into a bar under the yellow on the cheek; beneath this is a gorget of beautiful bright yellow; the back and scapulars are of a fine chesnut brown, the former marked with dusky streaks, the margin of the feathers with olive; rump olive-brown; upper tail coverts inclining to chesnut; the smaller wing coverts olive-green; greater coverts dusky, their outer webs chesnut-brown; greater quills dusky, edged with green on the exterior webs; smaller quills chesnut, dusky down their middle; across the breast is a band of chesnut, mixed with yellow; belly and under-tail coverts yellow, the latter dusky on the shafts; sides more inclining to brown; the underwing coverts bright yellow; the two middle feathers of the tail chesnut-brown, the rest black, except the two exterior on each side, which have an oblique bar of white from the tip half way; and the outmost feather is white throughout the whole of the exterior web; the legs are brown, claws dusky.

'The female in general weighs half a drachm less than the male.

'The upper part of the head is olivaceous brown, streaked with dusky; over the eye a dull yellow streak, passing down the side of the head; cheeks brown, on which is a yellowish spot; on each side of the lower mandible is a broken streak of dusky, passing downwards: chin and throat dull yellow, the latter streaked with dusky; the back-part and sides of the neck and breast olivaceous-brown, with dusky streaks; belly and sides pale yellow, with large dusky streaks on the latter; the upper part of the body and wings like the other sex, but the colours less bright.

'We first discovered this species near Kingsbridge in the winter of 1800, not uncommon amongst flocks of Yellow Buntings and Chaffinches, and procured several specimens of both sexes, killed in different places six or seven miles from that place. They are indigenous to Devonshire, but seem to be confined to the southern parts of that county contiguous to the coast, having found them extending as far as Teignmouth, at both of which places we found their nests; but have never observed them far inland. It generally builds in furze, or some low bush; the nest is composed of dry stalks, roots, and a little moss, and lined with long hair and fibrous roots. The eggs are four or five in number, cinereous white, with irregular long and short curved dusky lines, terminating frequently with a spot at one end; size rather inferior to those of the Yellow Bunting, to which it bears great resemblance. These birds pair in April, and begin laying early in May.

'The female might readily be mistaken for that sex of the Yellow Bunting at a little distance, but is materially different when compared, especially in the chesnut colour of the upper parts of this bird. The note is also similar to that of the Yellow Bunting, but

shorter, not so shrill, and the latter part not drawn out to such a length.

'It is remarkable that so common a bird as the Cirl-Bunting seems to be in the west of England, should have so long escaped the notice of British naturalists; but in all probability this has been occasioned by their locality. It is said to be only found on the continent in the warmer parts of France and Italy; so with us it seems confined to the mildest part of England; but the winter of 1800, which was severe in Devonshire, did not force them to seek a warmer climate, but, on the contrary, they continued gregarious with other small birds, searching their food amongst the ploughed lands.'

To the appendix, containing descriptions of *Tringa pucilla* and *Tringa flavipes*, are subjoined a list of British birds, according to their genera; and an explanation of the principal technical terms.

As the rules of analytic criticism can ill apply to a collection of names and descriptions, alphabetically arranged, we trust that the remarks which we have already made, and the passages which we have adduced, will suffice for our account of the work to which they refer, and of which we now take leave.

ART. V. *Hints designed to promote Beneficence, Temperance, and Medical Science.* By John Coakley Lettsom, M. & LL.D. &c. 3 Vols. 8vo. With 39 Plates. 1l. 8s. 6d. Boards. Mawman. 1802.

THESE volumes contain sketches of different charitable establishments, and particularly of those to which the pressure of the times has given rise, in the course of the last ten years. They include, of course, much useful information, though little which has not been already laid before the public. As an essay towards a history of public charities, however, this may be regarded as a very useful collection, and the philanthropist will derive much gratification from its perusal. The humanity of this country has kept pace with its opulence, and we may challenge the proud distinction of having extended our help to more classes of affliction than any other people in Europe.

The first volume is chiefly occupied with details of the means devised for the relief of the poor, during the times of scarcity; minutely describing various substitutes for wheat-bread, soup-shops, &c. and it concludes with an account of the plans for preventing fevers among the sick-poor, and of the houses of recovery established in Manchester and other places, which have so eminently contributed towards the suppression of febrile diseases.

Volume II. contains less of a medical nature; relating to the establishment of a Samaritan Society, and to the prevention of crimes: respecting which the author has introduced a remarkable story:

'It was my lot a few years ago to be attacked on the highway by a genteel-looking person well mounted, who demanded my money, at the same time placing a pistol to my breast. I requested him to remove the pistol, which he instantly did; I saw his agitation, from whence I concluded he had not been habituated to this hazardous practice; and I added, that I had both gold and silver about me, which I freely gave him; but that I was sorry to see a young gentleman risk his life in so unbecoming a manner, which would probably soon terminate at the gallows; that at the best, the casual pittance gained on the highway would afford but a precarious and temporary subsistence, but that if I could serve him by a private assistance more becoming his appearance, he might farther command my purse; and at the same time I desired him to accept a card containing my address, and to call upon me, as he might trust to my word for his liberty and life. He accepted my address, but I observed his voice faultered; it was late at night; there was, however, sufficient star-light to enable me to perceive, as I leaned towards him on the window of my carriage, that his bosom was overwhelmed with conflicting passions; at length, bending forward on his horse, and recovering the power of speech, he affectingly said; "I thank you for your offer—American affairs have ruined me—I will, dear Sir, wait upon you." Two weeks afterwards, a person entered my house whom I instantly recognised to be this highwayman: "I come," said he, "to communicate to you a matter that nearly concerns me, and I trust to your honour to keep it inviolable." I told him, I recollected him, and I requested him to relate his history with candour, as the most effectual means of securing my services; and such was the narrative, as would have excited sympathy in every heart. His fortunes had been spoiled on the American continent, and after a long imprisonment, he escaped to this asylum of liberty, where his resources failing, and perhaps with pride above the occupation of a sturdy beggar, he rashly ventured upon the most dreadful alternative of the highway, where in his second attempt he met with me. I found his narrative was literally true, which induced me to try various means of obviating his distresses. To the commissioners for relieving the American sufferers, application was made, but fruitlessly; at length he attended at Windsor, and delivered a memorial to the queen, briefly stating his sufferings, and the cause of them. Struck with his appearance, and pleased with his address, she graciously assured him of patronage, provided his pretensions should on inquiry be found justified. The result was, that in a few days she gave him a commission in the army; and by his public services twice has his name appeared in the Gazette among the promotions.'

We have no wish to discourage laudable efforts of this or of any kind: but we must suggest the danger of trusting to the *sentiment* of highwaymen; indeed we learn, from subsequent passages,

passages, that the author's eloquence had failed on other occasions of a similar kind. The *power* of these "sturdy beggars" is, according to Rousseau's definition, a pistol; and, but too generally, they are best answered by a retort in kind. It will unavoidably occur, in other parts of these volumes, to Dr. Lettsom's readers, that his *hints* ought rather to have been termed *memorials* of what has been done by preceding philanthropists: though, in several of the institutions described, it must be owned that he has taken a distinguished part.

We have also in this volume the whole correspondence relating to the design of erecting a statue to Mr. Howard, during his life-time: which collection of papers, we think, might have been spared; excepting that the singular modesty displayed by that great character, and his unconquerable aversion to being *dragged forwards*, as he expressed it, by the zeal of admiring friends, may be expected to afford an useful lesson to men of inferior merit and urgent pretension.

The third volume opens with Hints respecting the Cow-pock, consisting chiefly in a re-publication of a pamphlet which we had occasion to notice some time ago *. Here we are sorry to see the *Sacred Cow* again introduced. Thinking as highly as the warmest friends of the Vaccine Inoculation can do, of the benefits which this practice confers on mankind, we look to ANOTHER Object of gratitude and adoration—to the Giver of all good; and we therefore wish, that Dr. L. had not obtruded his Asiatic mummery on his readers, in this fresh publication.—The other papers in this volume afford no particular ground for observation. Their tendency is unexceptionable, and they will convey to many persons much important instruction.—The work is decorated with *silhouettes* and portraits of several distinguished authors and patrons of the establishments celebrated by Dr. Lettsom; and by plans and views of some of the buildings.

Dr. L. has transmitted to us a manuscript letter, in which he chooses to consider us as opposers of the Vaccine Inoculation, from a few observations which we dropped in reviewing the second volume of Dr. Trotter's *Medicina Nautica* †. At the time when that review was *written*, our minds were certainly impressed by Dr. Woodville's observations: but, if Dr. Lettsom will take the trouble of examining our preceding and subsequent statements, he will find that we have been strenuous asserters of the utility of Vaccine Inoculation. If we really possess such a degree of credit with the public as he is

* See Rev. Vol. xxxviii. N. S. p. 318.
† Ibid. Vol. xxxii. N. S. p. 248.

pleased

pleased to suppose, it is incumbent on us to weigh our opinions with the most scrupulous impartiality; and whether our influence be considerable or not, we shall always endeavour to avoid the extremes of tardy belief and premature acquiescence. Our objection to Dr. Trotter's plan, at that time, rested on a principle which we can never abandon,—that our enemies ought not to be made the first subjects of experiments.

We have also seen a pamphlet circulated by Dr. Lettsom; in which the Doctor has accused us (p. 27.) of having opposed the Vaccine Inoculation for two years: at least, by his mode of expression, he has attached this charge to us in common with others against whom he directs his allegation. The assertion, as far as it regards ourselves, we must plainly and directly contradict. Our statements of the evidence in support of the Vaccine Inoculation have been uniformly favourable; and we rest our vindication on a reference which our readers may easily make, to *all* our criticisms on publications devoted to this subject. Dr. Lettsom has evidently confounded us in his mind with other writers, for whose opinions we are not responsible; and we must particularly mention a passage in p. 34. of his pamphlet, in which he has inserted a quotation from *another* periodical work in such a manner that he appears to refer it to the Monthly Review. Conscious as we were that the sentiments expressed in that quotation had not proceeded from us, we found it necessary to consult the corresponding volume and page of the M. R. in order to be satisfied that Dr. L. had so uncandidly, and we must add unjustifiably, laid the paragraph at our door. This proceeding is of a kind which requires an ample apology from the offender: carelessness in such a case is hardly an excuse.

Art. VI. *Religious Principle the Source of National Prosperity:* A Sermon preached in the Parish Church of Richmond, Surrey, on the 1st of June, 1802, being the Day appointed by Proclamation for a General Thanksgiving. To which are subjoined (in the Form of Notes) Essays on various Subjects connected with the Occasion. By the Rev. Edward Patteson, M. A. formerly of Trinity College, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 183. 4s. Boards. Faulder.

In this annotating age, Mr. Patteson has accommodated himself to *the mode*, by presenting us with a sermon which, like a streaming meteor, throws out so long a tail, that we know not to which our attention ought principally to be directed, whether to the body of the star or to its luminous train. The sermon itself is a mass of *texts*: almost every page of it is

pregnant with an essay; and were we to accompany the writer through the various discussions into which he constantly digresses, we should be under the necessity of trespassing very largely on the attention of our readers. We shall endeavour to take a middle course.

'To obviate the charge which he suspects may be brought against him, of exceeding his proper and immediate province, the author particularly replies to the question, "What have the clergy to do with politics?" and he contends that a man, 'in assuming the character of a clergyman, has not renounced that of a *citizen*.' We expected that, in the course of his strenuous advocacy for the civil rights of the clergy, he would have reprobated their exclusion from the Commons House of Parliament: but, to our surprize, he makes no reference to this subject, contenting himself with urging their right, nay their *duty*, to introduce political views in their publications and discourses. Here much of his reasoning is good; and he so well defines the line of conduct which the political clergyman should pursue, that we shall transcribe a part of his introductory essay:

'Can it be the duty of a pastor to be solicitous for the interest of his flock in meaner concerns, and to regard it with indifference where the highest are involved? Shall his anxiety be demanded for the fate of individuals; and shall he, at the same time, be required to repress it, where the fate of *all* is in suspense? Can he with decency exhort every man to love his neighbour as himself, while, in his own conduct, he appears destitute of feeling for the whole body of his neighbours in their collective character? "Cari sunt parentes, cari liberi, propinqui, familiares; sed omnes omnium caritates patriæ una complexa est." These, indeed are the well-known words of a *heathen philosopher*: but has revelation superseded or discountenanced the generous ardour of a patriotic spirit? Let us hear an *inspired* writer, pathetically apostrophizing the metropolis of his country: "If I forget thee, O Jerusalem, let my right hand forget her cunning!" And it is recorded of a *far higher character*, that, approaching to the holy city, and prophetically contemplating the time when its enemies should not *leave in it one stone upon another*, he was affected, even to tears: "he beheld the city and wept over it." It cannot therefore be the less incumbent upon Christian ministers to exert themselves in any cause where peace, charity, justice, and humanity, are evidently at stake, because it is connected with political arrangements; (for this is only to say, that such a cause concerns rather the whole body of their countrymen than any particular citizen;) although it must be granted that the propriety of their interference will depend greatly upon the manner and extent of it. As champions of a party, as antagonists of individuals, as political gladiators, as dealers in scurrility and invective, *not knowing what spirit they are of*, it becomes the sacred order to be for ever silent. And if they cannot venture to make the slightest excursion upon the ocean of politics, without suffering themselves to be carried away by the current,

current, to the neglect of their flocks, and, perhaps, the destruction of that peace of mind which is so essential to the effectual discharge of their most important functions, they will do much better by resting on the shore.

'On the other hand, (so long as they observe a due decorum in temper and language,) in striving to moderate the spirit of party, to keep up the recollection of Providence, and of a future state, to maintain the purity of public morals, and to guard the holy scriptures from contempt and perversion (however the artifice or the madness of others may have blended and entangled these objects with political measures) it does not appear that they are confined to any other bounds than those of Christian charity, or by any motives of forbearance, but the despair of success *.'

It is true that the clergy, as members of the social body, are not precluded from the examination of questions which are interesting to the community at large; and it may be a public benefit, especially in times of great ferment and acrimonious agitation, to have politics discussed with that temper and moderation which may reasonably be expected from the ministers of the gospel of Christ: who, when they speak of the affairs of this world, are bound to view them with the mind and in the spirit of their divine Master. When representing the evils of war, and congratulating his hearers on the return of the blessings of peace, Mr. Patteson may be said to preach like a true Christian divine; and his discourse must give satisfaction to all those whom he could wish to please. While, however, we must commend him as a man of considerable talents, learning, and ingenuity, we must also confess that his political argumentation does not uniformly carry conviction to our minds; and that too much anger and invective are mingled with his representations.

A great part of the materials here brought together would have better suited the appendix to a *fast* than to a *thanksgiving* sermon. While war is to be prosecuted, it may be policy to

'* I anticipate the objection, that, upon these principles, I open a door for the unlimited entrance of the clergy into those very abominations, from which I appear most anxious to exclude them: "because" (it will be said) "whoever wishes to take a share in the political controversies and struggles of the day, will presently discover that *religion and social order* are deeply concerned in them."

'To this observation it is only necessary to reply, that no practice is to be prohibited, purely because it is open to abuse; that such of the clergy as will be guilty of *this* abuse, must ever bear a very small proportion to the whole body; and that the mischief to be apprehended from their misconduct in *promoting* dissensions, will be far more than compensated by the efforts of their more enlightened brethren to *compose* them.'

inflame the passions of the people against their enemies; if, according to the author, 'revenge, as an implement of war, is not less legitimate than the mechanical engines of destruction.' On the proclamation of peace, however, we may be expected to substitute reason for passion, and, by clearer views of things, to anticipate the decisions of history. Here Mr. P. affords us little assistance. His mind still feels all the agitation of the storm, and he delights in declamation; preferring bold assertion to that impartial review of the past, which may in time be presented to his better judgment.

From one who could argue so logically as Mr. Patteson has contended, in support of the justice of defensive war, we did not look for a repetition of those stale and unsatisfactory accounts of the French Revolution, which were urged by the Alarmists and the followers of Abbé Barruel during the war. Instead of re-producing the incredible assertion that 'the Revolution was a *deliberate* experiment, intended to demonstrate that both religion and government might safely be dispensed with, and that the benefits of society might be attainable without them;' or resolving all its convulsions and subversions into the effects of a conspiracy, engendered, and stimulated to activity, by the inexplicable influence of the still more inexplicable Illuminism of some clubs in Bavaria; we should have supposed that Mr. Patteson, presenting himself in the shape of an enlightened Christian inquirer, and not as '*a political-gladiator*,' would have explained the French Revolution by assigning it to causes really adequate to the production of such an effect. He might have mentioned the gradual progress of knowlege, so inimical to political and theological despotism; the spirit of liberty often evinced in the remonstrances of the parliaments against the king's edicts; the profligacy of the court; and the embarrassment of the finances. He might have shewn how much even the history of his own country, and the taunting boasts of his own countrymen, must have operated on the minds of the French people, in inducing them to wish for a change of system. He might have deplored the want of firmness in Louis XVI., the cowardice of the Nobles, and the interference of foreign powers in the early period of the Revolution, by which the French nation was precipitated into anarchy and republicanism. He might have discriminated between the different periods of the Revolution; and he might have speculated on the probable consequences which would have arisen, had Louis not violated his oath, but, instead of attempting flight, had resolved to fulfil his engagements and patiently wait for a period more favourable to his regal power. He might have adverted to the want of unity of

design and action in the coalesced powers; and, by contemplating this stupendous convulsion in its internal and external relations, he might have afforded a satisfactory and instructive illustration of its causes and progress. But no. This great event is not to be thus explained by Mr. Patteson. He tells us that 'Rousseau, Voltaire, and a few others of the same literary class, France has to thank for *all* her miseries;' and our attention is directed to the wonderful enterprizes, in aid of revolutions, of Adam Weisshaupt, of Bavaria, the founder of the order of the *Illuminés*.

'I leave (says Mr. P.) to the pen of history the office of recording—by what methods the novice of the order was prepared, sounded, initiated, and trained; for what purposes he was directed to the study of *character*, and how he was employed to *decoy*, *instruct*, and *inspect* others, unconscious that *his own conduct* was at the same time *watched* and *inspected*; in what manner it was contrived that, while each member of the order supposed himself arrived, on every successive promotion, at the true *secret* and mystery of the society, that secret should in reality be possessed *by the superiors* alone; by what mechanism it was effected, that while the information and control of those superiors extended to *all* the members, of whatever class, *their* names and persons were *concealed* from the inferior classes by a cloud of studied and impenetrable obscurity; by what *oaths* and promises the whole body was bound to obey *mandates*, of which it knew not the source, *even though they should be contrary to the laws of the land, and to the precepts of religion*; by what *ties*, more binding than a thousand oaths, that obedience was further secured; what new engagements, and what farther submissions, were the price of higher advancement and fuller communications; by what arts the superiors obtained the *secrets* of individuals and families, and thus brought each member severally under the power of the society; how the *lodges of Freemasonry* were, without their own consent or knowledge, converted into *seminaries of Illuminism*, and submitted to pay regular taxes for the maintenance of funds, of which they neither knew the depositaries, nor understood the application; how *princes* were made instrumental *to destroy sovereignty*, and the *clergy to destroy religion*; in fine, how the Illuminés were taught to despise *conscience*, by a *subversion of all moral principle*; to make light of *consequences*, by the *disbelief of an hereafter*; and to defy *justice*, by the *premeditation of suicide*.'

Mr. P. may leave all this idle romance (fit only for a German novel) to the pen of history: but history will reject it with disdain; and *sana posteritas* will contemplate the events of the last twelve years through a different medium than that which this preacher has provided. Could a great people be instigated to revolution by the initiation of certain individuals into a club, the essence of which was mystery, and the sum of the knowlege of which was that it had nothing to tell? Is it credible that a club could exist to any extent, which should compel its

members by oaths to obey mandates of which they knew not the source, nor, as it should appear, the object?—We should waste our time and paper by any farther notice of this German phantom, which was conjured up for a temporary purpose, and ought now to be laid in that *Red Sea* which has been the sanguinary consequence of its delusive impressions.

That 'Religious principle is the [*a*] source of National Prosperity' is a kind of axiom which, we believe, very few are inclined to dispute. Mr. P. has stated it at the head of his work, as the position which he undertakes to illustrate; and, as far as he considers it generally, his explanations are deserving of much praise: but, when he proceeds to mark the shades of religious opinion, we cannot refrain from saying that he forfeits the character of a man of sound judgment. 'Levelling principles,' he tells us, 'keep an equal pace in government and religion. Thus we find the cry of "*No Bishop!*" coupled with "*No King!*" *Socinianism* with *Democracy*; *Deism* with *Equality*; and, at the bottom of the scale, *Atheism* with *Anarchy*.' We do not notice these assertions as new. They have been repeated *usque ad nauseam*: but Mr. P., who seems to pride himself in deducing legitimate conclusions from his premises, should not have sanctioned such vulgar errors. Is there any natural connection between the religious and political opinions which are here coupled as twin-sisters? The Scotch cried out *No Bishop*; but have they not written their love of regal power in the blood of thousands and the books of ages? Are the Swiss or the Americans a nation of Socinians?—Were we to argue on the similarity of principles, we should be forced to assert that they who believe in the absolute and undivided *monocracy* of the universe must be friends to monarchical power: but such sort of reasoning is idle. The experience of past centuries, and the contemplation of present times, prove that religionists of all descriptions may be equally good subjects.

We must add that Mr. P. not only misrepresents the tendency of Socinianism, but evinces complete ignorance of its nature. 'The Socinian system,' he says, 'rejecting the *divine character of the Redeemer*, still, in some sense, adheres to *Redemption*, which takes away the *value of the victim*, and yet maintains *the efficacy of the sacrifice*.' The Socinian would here inform the author that he does *not* reject the divine character of Christ, though he denies his Divinity; that he does *not* contend for *Redemption*, in the sense commonly assigned to it, nor for the efficacy of the Sacrifice.

To the Catholics, Mr. Patteson is more complaisant than to the sectaries of his own country; the influence of their clergy is represented (p. 35.) as rather that 'of peruasion than of

force;' and so far is he from reprobating their refusal of toleration, that he thus mildly apologizes for them: 'In a country almost entirely Catholic, the disabilities laid on Protestants, however grievous, could never have become the object of general discontent.' We believe that the powers assumed and exercised to inforce these disabilities did excite general discontent; and the fate of the Calas family, though passed over in silence by Mr. P., awakened the indignation of all France and of all Europe.

In pointing out the danger resulting from French intercourse, and from the principles of Infidelity, the author makes some important observations; and this part of his work is deserving of general attention. To attention, indeed, his learning and his abilities may intitle him on all points; but to acquiescence and to commendation he can lay claim only with those who can adopt the sentiments, and be convinced by the arguments, of which we have given a few specimens in the preceding pages.

Art. VII. *The Principles of Surgery*, in Two Volumes: Vol. I, Of the Ordinary Duties of the Surgeon; containing the Principles of Surgery, as they relate to Wounds, Ulcers, and Fistulas; Aneurisms, and wounded Arteries, Fractures of the Limbs, and the Duties of the Military and the Hospital Surgeon. Vol. II. A System of Surgical Operations; containing the Principles of Surgery, as they relate to Surgical Diseases and Operations, as Lithotomy, Trepan, Hernia, Hydrocele, Amputation, &c. By John Bell, Surgeon. Vol. I. 4to. pp. 674. 4l. 4s. Boards. Edinburgh, Creech, &c.; London, Cadell and Davies, &c. 1801.

A treatise of such magnitude as that which is now before us may naturally give rise to the inquiry, whether the principles which it inculcates might not have been comprized, in a manner equally useful and agreeable, within more moderate limits. We are not disposed to be very fastidious respecting the size of a book: but, if we answer this question, we shall state our judgment that the author of the present production might have kept it within more readable magnitude, without any extraordinary efforts of compression, and without any diminution of its value.

Mr. Bell appears to place much value on his acquaintance with the earlier writers in surgery; and he often takes considerable pains to controvert opinions, or to correct practices, which have long been abandoned. The work is thus swelled with tedious and frequently uninteresting quotations, which can have little tendency to illustrate the doctrines that he lays

down, and which must serve to divert the attention of the student from the more important points of observation and practice. We must also remark that, though much good sense and much useful practical information are here displayed, we have frequent occasion to blame the author for a misplaced levity, and for a train of sarcasm and invective, highly undignified and unbecoming.

We shall now proceed to give a general outline of this volume, in the order adopted by the writer. It is divided into three sections, of which the first treats of Wounds, Ulcers, and the ordinary Duties of the Hospital Surgeon; the second, of Aneurisms, and Wounds of the Arteries; and the third, of Fractures of the Limbs. The whole is given in the form of discourses, which are elucidated by numerous, and in general well executed and correct plates.

The commencement offers some judicious remarks on the duties and qualifications of a surgeon. We then come to the history of the doctrine of adhesion; in which, after a long account of the speculations and practice of former times, the author examines the share borne by several modern surgeons of eminence, in introducing the improvements which have been since adopted. His ideas on the nature of the union, which takes place between two separated parts, appear to us rather incorrect. As the cause of their adhesion, he not only admits that a *mucus*, or new substance, may be formed between them, as a connecting medium into which the smaller arteries may elongate themselves, but that the vessels of opposite surfaces may unite immediately by inosculating, mouth to mouth; a circumstance which, we believe, never happens.—In the succeeding chapters, he describes the various kinds of sutures, and lays down a set of good rules for the reunion of wounds of various parts. He then considers the obstacles to adhesion, in which he enumerates inflammation; and here he is led to reject Mr. John Hunter's idea of adhesion being a process in which inflammation is necessarily concerned.

The observations on ill conditioned and complicated wounds and ulcers, seem to be the result of careful attention to the subject.—Mr. Bell very properly cautions his readers against the indiscriminate use of poultices; but, in the plan of cure recommended, he does not add much to the practice already pretty generally established. He remarks that an ulcer has hitherto been the *opprobrium medicinæ*, a disease in which the theory and practice are equally imperfect; and yet he treats with (as it appears to us) inconsistent severity, the experiments of Mr. Home, which were instituted for the purpose of ascertaining the precise effects of the remedies then in use, and of such

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as might have even the most distant probability of being serviceable. When principles are well established, they ought to be reduced to practice: but, where they are so imperfect as the author confesses them to have been when those trials were made, the experience of the actual effects of remedies, independently of any ideas on their mode of operation, is our only sure guide.

Mr. Bell devotes a considerable space to the consideration of Hæmorrhagy; in which he gives a long history of the various means of suppressing that discharge, and a statement of the doctrine of modern writers on the retraction of arteries. He next adverts to the subject of inosculation: which he defines to be a form and property of all arteries, essential to a free and perfect circulation of blood, and not confined to any particular part of the body; and he cites a curious case in confirmation of this opinion, from Dessaulx, in which a stricture and complete obstruction in the *aorta descendens*, immediately below the arch, were discovered on dissection. The viscera and lower parts of the body were supplied by branches of the subclavians, inosculating with the inferior intercostal and epigastric arteries; all of which were much increased in size.

In treating of popliteal Aneurism, the author recommends the operation proposed by Mr. Hunter, with the well known improvement of Mr. Abernethy. Here he bestows considerable labour in combating many opinions which existed only in the early period of the modern operation, and which have been long since exploded; particularly that of moderating the flow of blood into the aneurismal tumour.—We must observe, also, that he discovers a great want of candour, in giving an account of only the first operation performed by Mr. Hunter, under the ideas on the subject which were entertained at that time; without taking any notice of the improvements afterward adopted by that gentleman and Mr. Home. Such omissions are, in our apprehension, highly censurable.

In the chapter on Wounds of Arteries, Mr. Bell asserts that no degree of manual pressure will be sufficient to resist the flow of blood through a large artery; and that the contrary opinion, which is supported by many surgeons of eminence, is dangerous and ill founded.—He does not consider the stoppage of the pulse as a test of the flow of blood being entirely interrupted; and he thinks that, in divisions of large arteries situated too high up to admit of the tourniquet being applied, we are not to imagine that the flow will be restrained by the pressure of an assistant, but must instantly secure it with a ligature, in order to save the life of the patient. He takes this opportunity of indulging in a violent and indecorous philippic on Dr. Parry of Bath, for having ventured,

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in a periodical publication, to defend his opinions on the effects of compressing the carotids in hysteria and some other diseases, against the ridicule which Mr. Bell had attempted to cast on them in the second volume of his Anatomy. On this subject, we shall only state our suspicion, that the author would have more difficulty in demonstrating, that a pressure so great as to stop the pulsation of an artery would have no effect in diminishing its area, or lessening the flow of blood through it.

Mr. Bell gives the term of Aneurism by anastomosis, to the small pulsating enlargements occasionally observed, which resemble the bloody tumours sometimes appearing in children newly born.—He thinks that they consist in a congeries of active vessels, and are only to be cured by extirpation.

The volume concludes with a section on Fractures, in which are many valuable practical and physiological observations, though they do not materially differ from such as are now generally admitted.

In order to afford our readers a favourable opportunity of judging of the author's abilities as an operative surgeon, we shall not close this article without quoting a very interesting case, which reflects much credit on his decision and intrepidity. The account itself, however, is not new to us, because it appeared some time ago in a former publication of this writer:

"A poor man, by trade a leech-catcher, fell as he was stepping out of a boat, and the long and pointed scissars which are used in his business being in his pocket, pierced his hip exactly over the place of the sciatic notch, where the great iliac artery comes out from the pelvis. The artery was struck with the point of the scissars, it bled furiously, the patient fainted; and in so narrow and deep a wound, the surgeon, when he came, found little difficulty in stopping it up, and less difficulty still in making it heal. The outward wound was cured; the great tumor soon formed; and the man travelled up from the north country, where the accident had befallen him, and in six weeks after arrived in our hospital here with a prodigious tumor of the hip, his thigh rigidly contracted, the ham bended, the whole leg shrunk, cold, and useless, as if it had been an aneurism rather of the artery on the fore part of the thigh.

"The tumor was of a prodigious size, and by that very circumstance of its being one of the greatest aneurisms, it had lost all the characteristics of aneurism. There was no pulsation, no retrocession of the blood when the tumor was pressed upon; there was nothing else peculiar in the tumor except this, that the great and sudden distension occasioned great pain; and from the continual pain, and lameness, and from having some hopes of a cure, he was ready to submit to any thing, beseeching us to operate.

"There was little doubt of this being a great aneurism, but there was a possibility of its being a vast abscess; and it was resolved in consultation

consultation that the patient should be carried into the operation room; that a small incision should be made; that the skin, being cut, the bag itself should be just touched with the point of a lancet; if found to contain matter, it should be fully opened: but if blood, then it was to be considered as an aneurism of so particular a kind, as to entitle us to call for a full consultation.

"I made an incision two inches and a half in length; the great fascia of the hip appeared blue, and very strong, forming the coat of the tumor, and under that were seen the big fibres of the great glutæus muscle. The knife was struck into it, and large clots of very firm black blood rolled out; for such was the tenseness of the tumor, that it began to emit the clots in this way, the moment it was punctured. There was one thing further desirable, that before we put the patient to bed, we should understand the case so far as to be able to report to the consultation, whether the artery was absolutely open, and whether it was the great artery of the hip. I continued therefore (knowing that the opening I had made could be covered with the point of the thumb) to pull out a few more clots, till the warm and florid blood began to flow; I then pushed in a tent-like compress into the small wound of the tumor (viz. of the fascia), laid a broad compress over the outward wound, and put the patient to bed, with one of the pupils holding the hand upon his hip.

"This was done at one o'clock, and at four the consultation met, and the operation was performed. And in my notes, I find two steps of the operation chiefly marked:—First, That upon our opening the tumor fully with an incision of eight inches long, and turning out the great clots, the blood was thrown out with a whishing noise, and with such impetus, that the assistants were covered with it, and in a moment twenty hands were about the tumor, and the bag was filled with sponges, and cloths of all kinds, which had no better effect than the cloths which, in any accident, the friends in great confusion wrap round a wounded arm; for though the blood was no longer thrown in a full stream, nor in jets, it was seen rising through the edges of the incision; it floated by the sides of the cloths, which were pressed down by the hands of the assistants. But we knew also by a more alarming sign that the blood continued to flow, for the man, who was at first lying not flat, but supporting himself on his elbows, fell down, his arms fell lifeless and without pulse over the side of the table, his head hung down, his face was livid, he uttered two or three heavy groans, and we believed him dead.

'Secondly, Seeing, in this critical moment, that if he was to be saved, it was to be only by a sudden stroke, I ran the history upwards and downwards, and at once made my incision two feet in length: I thrust my hand down to the bottom of the tumor, turned off the great sponge which was over the artery, felt the warm jet of blood, put the point of my finger upon the mouth of the artery; then I felt distinctly its pulse, and then only was I assured that the man was still alive. The assistants laid aside the edges of this prodigious sac, and sought out the several smaller sponges which had been thrust in, and the sac being deliberately cleaned, and its edges held aside, I kept the fore finger of my left hand steady upon the artery, passed one of the largest

largest needles round under my fore finger, so as to surround the artery: one of my friends tied the ligature, and then upon lifting the point of my finger, it was distinctly seen, that it was the posterior iliac artery,—that the artery had been cut fairly across, and had bled with open mouth—that it was cut and tied exactly where it turns over the bone: and although the extremities were cold, the face of a leaden colour, and the man had ceased to groan, and lay as dead; though the faint pulsation could not be felt through the skin, in any part of the body, we saw the artery beating so strongly under my finger, that we were assured of our patient's safety; however, he was so low, that after laying down the sides of the sac, and putting bandages round his body to keep all firm, we were obliged to have a bed brought in, and having given him some cordials, we left him to sleep in the great operation room, attended by the pupils and by nurses. He passed his urine and fæces involuntarily for some days, and was long in recovering his voice.

'He was cured of this great wound in less than seven months, although his cure was protracted by the foul suppuration of such a sac, and by the exfoliation of the ilium and sacrum, which spoiled, not so much from their having been laid bare by the last sudden stroke of the knife, as by the aneurismal blood having pressed upon them; the exfoliations were very large, and the sacrum especially continued exfoliating to the very day on which the wound closed.

'I do not know whether this man have recovered entirely, for he left the house lame, from the contractions of the hip and ham, and walking by the help of a stick; but however, he thought himself fit to undertake his profession, and went to England with that design *.'

We have not yet been apprized that another volume of this work has appeared.

Art. VIII. *Observations on a Tour through almost the Whole of England, and a considerable Part of Scotland*, in a Series of Letters, addressed to a large Number of intelligent and respectable Friends. By Mr. Dibdin. 4to. 2 Vols. With Plates. 3l. 10s. Boards. Goulding, Walker, &c.

Travelling is become a very general recreation; and if pens were as actively employed as curricles and post-chaises, "of making books (as Solomon says) there would be no end." We would not, however, encourage every rambler who is capable of amusing himself by his observations on manners and scenery, to undertake the edification or gratification of the public; and, indeed, since this country has been so frequently

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'* Dr. Farquharson, who succeeded me in the charge of the hospital, has just informed me, of this man having called upon him after his return from England, walking stoutly, and in good health.'

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described, there should be good reason for adding to the number of tours. To Mr. Dibdin we are indebted for considerable entertainment in his professional line; and, having been often exhilarated and put in good humour by his verse, we are invited to attend him as a writer of prose. Some pleasing recollections will certainly operate in his favour; and if we should be under the necessity of qualifying our praise by a few objections, we beg him to consider us as honest, not as ill-natured critics.

Observations on a Tour do not always imply neither minute examination or profound reflection: but the mass, taken altogether, should be worthy of public notice, if the writer would be justified in sending it to the press. There can be no doubt of the actual opportunities enjoyed by Mr. Dibdin for exploring the country; and if he may be supposed to possess as much good sense as playfulness and comicality, his readers will anticipate a pleasant book. All circumstances considered, indeed, the work will not disappoint reasonable expectation; and though it be not very learned, nor very profound, nor very correct in style and observation, the author appears to have taken pains to render it generally acceptable.

These letters, however, are not to be regarded entirely as hasty effusions, written while the author was posting from town to town; since they are in fact compositions prepared at leisure from his notes and journals, at his house in Leicester Place, and addressed to different friends for their entertainment and approbation.—In the advertisement, Mr. D. speaks with rather too much self-gratulation concerning this undertaking. Having announced his work as forming two handsome quarto volumes, embellished with *forty views* and *twenty vignettes*, he adds:

'So much mental and manual labour has rarely, perhaps never, been bestowed by one man on any production. Painting, which had been only my private amusement, out of devotion to the public, I have in this instance made one of my professions, and to those who love truth and strength of expression, I hope I have not tendered the appeal in vain.'—'The endless and unexampled variety which I have been three years in collecting, the advice and encouragement of friends, whose names are a powerful guarantee, and the lively pleasure and laborious care, for which I flatter myself I have been given credit in all my pursuits: these and other self evident considerations seem to render an address of this kind more customary than necessary.'

Three introductory letters develope the author's design; and in them we are told that 'the two prominent features of his work will be an independence of mind and a rigid regard to truth; that he will not flatter any place or people to bespeak

favour

favour for himself, or deal out indiscriminate censure at the expence of rectitude.' This is saying much for a person in the author's situation: but we really observe a manliness of spirit in many of his remarks, which induces us to believe that he has here given the picture of his mind. It is in vain, however, to boast of a regard to truth, unless he also takes the most unremitting pains to be correct; which does not appear always to have been the case.

These volumes are constructed on so regular a plan, that they may serve as a guide to the tourist through England and Scotland. The geographical position and boundaries of each county are laid down, with its towns, rivers, and parishes; the curious plants which it produces, and the celebrated men to whom it has given birth, are recorded; and an useful table of distances is subjoined, for the convenience of the posting traveller. The progress of the narrative is occasionally interrupted by the insertion of letters, or rather essays, on particular subjects; which, besides furnishing hints that may be of use to those who travel, contain many amusing anecdotes. They relate to *Roads*, *Tours*, *Inns*, *Servants*, *Dogs*, *Dialects*, *Agriculture*, *the Poor*, *Watering Places*, &c.

We shall adduce various passages which will reflect credit on Mr. Dibdin as an observer: but we must also perform our duty by transcribing others which will manifest to our readers his peculiarities and his defects as a writer. He may be characterized as an absolute mannerist; whose remarks evince that *smartness* of turn which in a song will produce a comical effect, but in prose and narration is not always appropriate and agreeable. Some verbal errors also occur, such as *Heroulus* for Hercules, *manooverer* for manœuvrer, *phænomena* for phænomena, &c. If these may be attributed to the press, we cannot thus excuse such vulgarisms as 'it cost *to the tune* of twenty pounds,'—'Dunstable is *calculate* for a variety of things,'—'the true life of *your* Londoner,' &c.—and one short passage is luxuriantly productive of these beauties:

'"It is a constant and a melancholy fact that the higher orders of society act in open defiance of all decency; but what is much more lamentable, their inferiors, however the means may be procured, *stick at* nothing to indulge in the same ridiculous follies. In London it is all very well. People of fashion *stick to* the opera and to their own private parties, and fly about naked, and nobody cares twopence about it; but, when they come down determined to *quiz* the vulgar and *do up* the cits at bathing places, it is really outrageous.'

Sometimes Mr. D. appears in the character of *Mr. Rapid*, and passes over ground with such celerity, that nothing becomes a matter of reflection but his speed, and the propriety of his characteristic epithets:

'On

'On Thursday the 31st of May, 1798, I left Leicester-Place, and passing by the loiterers of Kensington, the *rus in urbe* gardeners, dashers, and retired office-clerks of Hammersmith, the holiday-makers of Turnham-Green, the French emigrants of every place, and the wretched pity-moving horses, that tug the crazy stages from Hyde-park Corner to Kew-Bridge, every effort a step towards their last homes, I rejoiced when I had left tedious Brentford behind me; and continued through neat Smallberry-Green, and bustling Hounslow, till at length, after contemplating the dreadful profligacy and degeneracy of human nature, upon a view of Haine on his gibbet, who seemed as if waiting for his present companion, I found myself in excellent cue for a dinner, which on my arrival, I ordered at the Bush at Staines.'

Mr. Dibdin's mode of getting rid of difficulties, and of giving the *go-by* (as he perhaps would say) to the antiquary, will be seen in his account of Stonehenge:

'All that can be, or perhaps ought to be said is, that the mass of stones in question is a most extraordinary and stupendous object; and as it cannot have been placed in that form and situation by any effort of nature, which some have suspected, it argues that the ancients had wonderful ideas and wonderful resources in the formation of their public erections; but whether it was formed to perpetuate fame, to do honour to religion, or for whatever purpose, the most enlightened authors stand no better chance of coming at the real truth, nor does it signify three-pence whether they come at it or not, than the most incurious of all those travellers, who stop, are astonished, and ride on.'

His remark on Salisbury spire is completely puerile: 'I don't like the spire;—it seems soaring out of the sight of the church with which it appears to be offended.' The inhabitants of Salisbury will not thank him for thus attempting to destroy the reputation of their lofty spire; and they will feel themselves still less obliged by his compliment on the nocturnal *fragrancy* of their city:

'It would have been impossible to have existed there for want of water, had not brick canals been constructed, which conduct that necessary of life through all the streets of this city; necessary particularly there; for, though at mid noon the stream may be pellucid, and per chance sweet, at midnight I am afraid it never has either of these advantages; for unaccustomed to dig for cellars, a convenience this city cannot boast, they do not trouble their heads to dig for any other convenient purposes, and, therefore, in spite of these continual ablutions, there are times when you might fancy yourself in Old Edinburgh; and, it is on this account, perhaps, that people spend the day at Salisbury, and sleep in the neighbourhood.'

Atoms were never more jumbled in chaos, than ideas in this account of Folkstone;

'From

'From the extremity of this hill, where there is a telegraph, you look down the chimnies of FOLKSTONE, which place has a ruinated castle and a watch-tower, a few genteel houses, inhabited by retired captains of ships and other relative characters, *which abounds with fish*, and therefore, according to the information I had from a gentleman resident there, swarms with children.'

Mr. D. betrays all John Bull's prejudice against the French:—'I declare to heaven I could not in the course of nearly two years, for I was during that period among them, extract a single quality by which a man of true, broad, liberal, or in short English honour, would wish to be distinguished,' &c. &c.

The biographical sketches, or rather *dashes*, interspersed in these letters, are in the manner of Guerchino; and a strong effect is attempted to be produced by a very few strokes:

'SAMUEL JOHNSON, the divine, and SAMUEL JOHNSON, the lexicographer, were both born in STAFFORDSHIRE. They were equally self-willed and equally turbulent; but nothing can be more different than were the fortunes of the two men. One exposed himself to the resentment of the court and the people by his unqualified assertions and writings, was put in the pillory, attempted to be assassinated, and underwent a variety of punishments and humiliations; the other, for writings and assertions equally unqualified, was caressed like a spoilt child, feared, courted, and rewarded with a pension.'—

'That famous and fanciful writer HOBBES, author of the Leviathan, which drew on him a number of adversaries, and which was formally censured by Parliament and the convocation, was born at MALMSBURY in 1538. HOBBES could not be said to be what POPE calls GAY, a safe companion, which in ADDISON would have been called faint praise; for, though he was evidently wrong in all his assertions, he could not be persuaded to change his opinion. Perhaps this was the reason why his friends denied him his last request, which was to place on his tombstone, "This is the philosopher's stone," in which they acted perfectly right.'

In passing through Cornwall, Mr. D. takes notice of its several mineral productions, and particularly of the tin mines:

'Tin either insinuates itself by lodes, or lies in floors. Lodes are the veins that run through fissures and fill up their sides or walls, and thus they branch in all directions, even through the minutest interstices like so many threads. Nothing, I think, can give so faithful a resemblance as the dry rot in wood. Floors are horizontal layers of the tin ore to a vast extent, and therefore would be very productive could they be conveniently worked; but they lie at a great depth, and therefore it is expensive and dangerous to get at them. One experiment of this kind proved fatal; for, in spite of the assistance of strong timber with which it is necessary to secure the passages of the mine, the ground at BEL-AN-UUN to a large compass fell in, and buried all the miners within its reach.

'Tin

'Tin is also found in spots and bunches in the body of the rock; and, when discovered in granite, these are sometimes so large and so numerous, that they make ample amends for the trouble in procuring them, even though the miner is obliged to blow up the rock, and break it afterwards with sledge hammers to get at the tin. Tin is also found in stones, and one would think the miners considered ore as the vital circulation by which the growth of rocks is kept up and accelerated, for when a large number of those stones are found together, they call them beuheyl, which means in the Cornish language a living stream, or body; and for the same reason, when a stone has a small portion of tin or other ore attached to it, they say it is just alive; but if it has none, they pronounce it to be dead.

'Tin is sometimes found among the slime and sands of rivers, and on the sea shore, to which situations there is no doubt, but it has been washed from the hills, though sometimes the sea casts it up in a pulverized state, which is probably occasioned by lodes or floors situated underneath, and fretted and agitated by storms. The barrenness of the ground very often discovers the course of a lode, and sometimes a well cultivated field will betray it by the weakness of the grass in partial directions.'—

'As a ship is impelled by the wind, and a hound by the scent, so is the miner by symptoms that rouse equal sagacity.'—[What is the *sagacity* of a *ship?*]

Some curious particulars relative to smugglers, and their practices, occur in pp. 169—174. of vol. i. which, however, we have not room to extract.

The tour to Derbyshire is also distinguished by an attention to mineralogy; and the description of Peake's hole (known by a grosser appellation) we can pronounce to be correct:

'At the entrance of this cavern are little sheds and a kind of rope walk, where the poor inhabitants carry on a manufactory for small cord, twine, and other similar articles. The span of the arch is a hundred and twenty feet, and its height from the left abutment about seventy. In the first cavern, which is about a hundred and eighty feet, you are shewn stalactites, which you are told by your guide are petrified waters; but it is no more than an accumulation of calcareous earth, with which the water, in filtering through the stratum, is loaded, for each drop upon dissipating leaves behind it a portion of the earth with which it is saturated, and at length, by attraction, a body is gathered together, and becomes spar in the appearance of innumerable icicles.

'Being by this time furnished with candles, you proceed through various narrow passages, till you come to a hole above your head, shaped something like a bell. You are there shewn a line on the side of the rock, up to which the water rises in heavy rains. Soon after this you arrive at the first water, on which there is a boat, in resemblance something like a tea-tray. You are directed to lie down in the boat, and in that position, without the smallest danger, you are

conducted through an aperture just sufficient for the boat to pass, and then landed in a cavern much more stupendous than the first. It is about two hundred and fifty feet by two hundred. From this cavern you get to a smaller water, over which you are conducted, and you presently come to an aperture, where the water is perpetually filtering, and this place the guide calls, not unpoetically, ROGER RAIN'S house. From thence you continue to what is called the chancel, where you are suddenly surprised by several voices from a gallery above, at the height of sixty feet. The numberless reflections of the lights, the effect of the echoes, which turn singers and join in the concert, have altogether a most romantic and extraordinary effect, and might fill the head of a lover or an adventurer with an idea that some of the scenes in the Arabian Nights Entertainments were realized in PEAKE'S HOLE.

'From the chancel you proceed to a fissure called the Devil's Cellar; from thence you descend a hundred and fifty feet, and arrive at the half-way house. Passing on, you proceed through three arches by the side of a small stream, which you cross, when the roof assumes a more regular segment of a circle, and presently afterwards the form of a bell, as before, but much larger, and is from that called TOM OF LINCOLN. There is no great novelty afterwards. Your return to day-light, which has a most astonishing effect, is, if you think proper, accompanied with what the miners call a blast, which adds to the wonder, and staggers the senses a little more.'

From the author's Scottish tour, we extract the following account of Holyrood-house:

'We paid a visit to HOLYROOD-HOUSE, where I saw the portraits of all the kings of SCOTLAND, which seem as if they had been painted on the same morning, by the same painter, and from the same pallet. Indeed, I was so unfortunate that I did not see a real good picture while I was in SCOTLAND. There are a few portraits, which seem to be humble imitations of HOLBEINS, at SCONE, but they had no character of the sort of painting proper to adorn a palace. There can, however, be no doubt but that many Scotch noblemen are possessed of valuable pictures. I can only say, that I was not fortunate enough to see them. Before we quitted HOLYROOD HOUSE, it was of course indispensibly necessary to visit the chamber where RIZZIO was put to death by DARNLEY. The whole suite of apartments made but a miserable appearance. They consisted of a bed-chamber, a dressing-room, a kind of hall, and a retiring closet. The whole together I should suppose on a scale not more than five and twenty feet square. In the closet is a dingy hole of perhaps about nine feet by six, there was a trap door behind the tapestry, which led to a narrow winding staircase. Through this DARNLEY entered with his friend. RIZZIO was dragged from the presence of the queen through the bed chamber and assassinated in the hall, all which transaction must appear to those who see the place more like an exploit in a brothel than the manly revenge of a prince in a palace. The boards where RIZZIO is said to have been

murdered

murdered are stained, and we were gravely told that it was with his blood, which they most solemnly assure you has never yet been washed out. The cloisters at HOLYROOD HOUSE are extensive and beautiful. They form a quadrangle like those of the Convent of the Chartreux, near NANCI, in LORRAINE, but they are by no means so magnificent.'

The insertion of occasional letters may be regarded by some readers as an unpleasant interruption of the narrative: but, as containing the result of the author's observations and reflections, and as enlivened with a variety of anecdotes, we consider them as valuable additions to the volume. When we pay them this compliment, however, we do not mean to convey an approbation of all the sentiments which they exhibit. The letters on Agriculture, Monopoly, and the Poor, are superficial; and the latter, if not hard-hearted, is at least misconceived. When the wages of the honest labouring poor will not support them, it cannot be asserted that they 'are *thankless without cause*.' If Mr. Dibdin, after having worked from six o'clock in the morning to six in the evening, were forced to solicit parish assistance for his support, would he have no cause for discontent?

The letter on *Inns* should be perused by all travellers and tourists; and that which relates to *Dogs* should be universally consulted, for its several anecdotes of these most amiable and grateful animals. We have ourselves had such experience of the fidelity of dogs, that we can credit almost any stories of their singular attachment; and, as a proof of our respect for *canine-virtue*, which stands very high in our scale, we shall transcribe an anecdote which Mr. D. relates of his own dog:

'I took with me last summer one of those spotted dogs, which are generally called Danish, but the breed is Dalmatian. It was impossible for any thing to be more sportive, yet more inoffensive than this dog. Throughout the mountainous parts of CUMBERLAND and SCOTLAND, his delight was to chase the sheep, which he would follow with great alertness even to the summits of the most rugged steeps; and, when he had frightened them and made them scamper to his satisfaction, for he never attempted to injure them, he constantly came back wagging his tail and appearing very happy at those caresses which we, perhaps, absurdly bestowed upon him.

'About seven miles on this side [of] KINROSS, in the way from STIRLING, he had been amusing himself with playing these pranks, the the sheep flying from him in all directions, when a black lamb turned upon him, and looked him full in the face. He seemed astonished for an instant; but, before he could rally his resolution, the lamb began to paw him and play with him. It is impossible to describe the effect this had on him; his tail was between his legs, he appeared in the utmost dread, and slunk away confused and distressed. Presently his new acquaintance invited him by all manner of gambols,

to be friends with him. What a moment for PYTHAGORAS or LAVATER! By and by, gradually overcoming his fears, he accepted this brotherly challenge, and they raced away together, and rolled over one another like two kittens. Presently appeared another object of distress. The shepherd's boy came to reclaim his lamb; but it paid no attention except to the dog, and they were presently at a considerable distance. We slackened our pace for the convenience of the boy; but nothing would do: we could no more call off the dog than he could catch the lamb. They continued sporting in this manner for more than a mile and a half. At length, having taken a circuit, they were in our rear; and, after we had crossed a small bridge, the boy with his pole kept the lamb at bay, and at length catched him: and, having tied his plaid round him, it was impossible for him to escape. Out of fear of the boy, and in obedience to us, the dog followed reluctantly; but the situation of the lamb all this time cannot be pictured; he made every possible attempt to pass the boy, and even endeavoured to mount the parapet, as if determined to jump into the river rather than not follow the dog. This continued till the prospect closed, and we had lost sight of our new ally, whose unexpected offer of amity to SPOT seemed ever after to operate as a friendly admonition, for from that day he was cured of following sheep.'

We add another story in proof of the sagacity of these *friends to man*:

'At a convent in FRANCE, twenty paupers were served with a dinner at a given hour every day. A dog belonging to the convent did not fail to be present at this regale, because of the odds and ends which were now and then thrown down to him. The guests, however, were poor and hungry, and of course not very wasteful, so that their pensioner did little more than scent the feast of which he would fain have partaken. The portions were served one by one at the ringing of a bell, and delivered out by means of what in religious houses is called a *tour*, which is a machine like the section of a cask, that turning round upon a pivot exhibits whatever is placed on the concave side, without discovering the person who moves it.

'One day this dog, who had only received a few scraps, waited till the paupers were all gone, took the rope in his mouth and rang the bell. His stratagem succeeded. He repeated it the next day with the same good fortune. At length the cook, finding that twenty-one portions were given out instead of twenty, was determined to discover the trick, in doing which he had no great difficulty; for lying *perdû*, and noticing the paupers as they came in great regularity for their different portions, and that there was no intruder except the dog, he began to suspect the real truth, which he was confirmed in when he saw him wait with great deliberation till the visitors were all gone, and then pull the bell. The matter was related to the community, and to reward him for his ingenuity, he was permitted to ring the bell every day for his dinner, when a mess of broken victuals was purposely served out to him.'

In changing the subject from Dogs to Men, some of our fellow creatures will not gain much by the comparison. Mr.

D. gives a letter on menial servants, which is conceived in a style by no means calculated to ingratiate himself with these important personages in great families, nor to exalt them in public estimation. The following anecdote is told, to explain the connection often subsisting between tradesmen and the servants of the rich:

'Early in life, when I mixed a good deal with the world, I knew a very opulent tradesman who possessed at least eighty thousand pounds, who kept the first company, and who gave dinners in the most elegant style. I have seen at his table persons of distinction, and have met him and his family at their tables. I once went with him to pay a visit in the country to a baronet remarkable for hospitality, and where I was taught to expect a great deal of pleasure. We arrived in the evening, and as we were ushered into a room I could not help noticing that the servants came round us, and accosted us both with uncommon familiarity, at which I must confess, I rather expressed some astonishment. To relieve me, however, from my embarrassment, he told me that it would be more snug to sup in the housekeeper's room than appear before the family in our boots. To this I acquiesced; but, when I came to see a great deal of cordiality between him and the butler, who proclaimed his approach by the emancipation of a long cork, and at the same time swore that he always kept the best bottle for his private friend; and when, soon after this I was asked to sing, and treated with less ceremony than I had really ever been accustomed to from persons of this description, I had first thoughts of expostulating in pretty round terms with my friend, but on reflection, unwilling to interfere with his private motives, whatever they might be, I pretended to have a violent toothach, and got to bed as soon as possible.

'Early in the morning I mounted my horse and rode to town, certainly leaving my friend in the lurch, but he deserved it, for I found there was more meant by the excursion than I should at any rate have bargained for. It turned out that there was to be open house kept on the day I left the place, for the celebration of some anniversary always observed by the family, and that I was invited to be comical and entertain the company, while my friend was to look on at humble distance. I had the honour of meeting this very baronet afterwards at the house of one of his friends in town. He laughed heartily at the circumstance, applauded my spirit, and invited me to his house, where I frequently dined with him afterwards, and partook of coursing and other country pleasures.

'It is proper to tell you that my friend the tradesman took an opportunity to call on me. He made an apology for having lugged me into such a scrape, hoped it would make no difference in our intimacy; said that in the way of business trifles must be passed by, that servants were great friends to tradesmen, and that where money was to be got people must not be nice. I answered, I had nothing to do as to his private conduct, and only regretted that he had not permitted me to make an election as to my own. So far it was all very well; but the joke was not finished. I called on him one day

on particular business about an hour after dinner time; and, being ushered into the parlour without ceremony, I saw, with an elegant dessert and French wines before them, the baronet's butler and housekeeper, sitting in the very room and at the very table where two months before I had dined with a countess.

'This fact, which it literally is from beginning to end, proves a great deal, and I will follow it up with another that proves a great deal more. About three years after this circumstance happened, this very butler was turned away for conniving with the butcher, in the manner of drawing out his bills, to defraud the baronet of eight hundred pounds. Mem. My friend was not the butcher.'

The letter concludes with some very free but sensible remarks on the reform necessary to be adopted by the gentry themselves, with regard to their treatment of servants, and the example which they set to them.

From these scattered fragments, the reader may be able to appreciate Mr. Dibdin's merit as an Essayist and British tourist. The plates, which are finished in acquatinta, are tolerably executed: but effect in the drawing has professedly been more regarded than accuracy of delineation.—An index ought to have been affixed to this work, if it is to be regarded as worthy of consultation; and it was the more necessary because one uniform unmeaning head-title (*Dibdin's Tour*) occupies the top of each page throughout both volumes, so that the eye has no guide in turning to any particular part. This is a mode too often adopted, but is so repugnant to common sense and convenience that we are astonished at its prevalence.

Art. IX. *Elements of the Philosophy of the Mind, and of Moral Philosophy.* To which is prefixed A Compendium of Logic. By Thomas Belsham. 8vo. pp. 550. 9s. Boards. Johnson.

'*I TREMBLE at myself, and, in myself am lost!*" Such was the sentiment of the poet, and such must be the reflection of every one who seriously turns his thoughts towards his own being and attributes. The lofty inquiries of the metaphysician reach not to their mighty object; and yet, while they fail to satisfy us, they overwhelm us with astonishment.

"Thought wanders up and down, surpriz'd, aghast,
And wond'ring at her own."

Man, a sentient being, when he enters on the study of the philosophy of mind, and endeavours to ascertain the nature and essence of the sentient principle, finds that limits are set to human knowlege which cannot be passed. In the prosecution of the mental research, his attention is directed to certain material phænomena; and he is taught to observe the operation

tion of external objects on the organs of sense, and the propagation of the impressions excited on them along the nerves to the brain. It may not be difficult for him to satisfy himself in accounting for the production of these impressions: the Hartleian or the Newtonian theory of vibrations may be considered as affording a tolerable explanation of many phænomena respecting the nervous functions: but what then? The great perplexing question still remains, What is that principle which takes cognizance of these vibrations, after they have been communicated to the extremity of the nerve by the curious mechanism of the animal frame? When the optic nerve has transmitted vibrations of one kind, and the auditory nerve vibrations of another, what is it that observes them, and receives from them sensations of pleasure or of pain? The general answer would be, It is *the Mind*: but then another question arises, *What is the Mind?* Here the greatest philosophers stand confounded, and the diversity of opinions manifests the difficulties with which they are pressed. We can analyze the faculties of the mind, give names to its several operations, and observe the manner in which it collects ideas: but its essence is inscrutable by our observation. We can state what the mind *does*, but not what it *is*.—The hypothesis of an immaterial principle is generally adopted: but to this conjecture some metaphysicians offer strong objections, and contend that the mind is material as well as the body. We are aware of the obstacles which the doctrine of *a soul* must encounter: yet, if it be allowed that the Divine Being is *a Spirit*, distinct from matter, the probability of the existence of such a nature cannot be denied; and it is much easier to believe that what we term the intellectual principle is something resembling the Eternal Fountain of Knowlege, than to conceive it to be a property arising from a certain configuration of matter. Though one wave or vibration may be propelled by another, or sink into vibratiuncules or vibrations of vibrations, is it reasonable to believe that the propagation or repetition of vibrations *ad infinitum* can generate a power of observing and recording them? The materialist exults in the success of his experiments on matter, and in the ignorance and want of accuracy manifested by his opponents; and yet none of his experiments, nor the phænomena subject to his observation, extend far enough to furnish him with any statements that can assume the shape of demonstration.

The inquiry into the Philosophy of Mind branches out into various discussions, besides those which respect the nature of the sentient principle. The mind not only takes notice of impressions made on the external organs, but it forms *volitions*: in conformity to which, motion is given to the animal system.

a very important question then occurs, What is the law of these volitions, and how far is Man a free agent? This discussion introduces the much agitated topics of Liberty, Necessity, and the Divine Fore-knowlege; in which all human beings, let them reason ever so high, will "*find no end, in wandering mazes lost.*"

In the work before us, Mr. Belsham has displayed the properties of a philosophic mind; and it is impossible not to admire the ingenuity and strength of intellect with which he pursues his inquiries. His conclusions, however, will appear to most readers to be neither satisfactory nor comfortable; and they may probably be induced to exclaim with Gray, "Where ignorance is bliss, 'tis folly to be wise!" While we intimate our fears respecting the tendency of some parts of the author's reasoning to unsettle the religious principle of the mind, if carried to their utmost extent, we would do him the justice to remark that, so far from being aware of such a result, he every where contends for the importance of religion and virtue:

'He flatters himself that he has stated the evidence for the doctrines of Necessity and Materialism in a form so obvious and succinct, and that he has suggested such answers to the popular objections, as, if they fail to convince, will at least abate the clamour of ignorance and prejudice against these principles, as if they were unfavourable to virtue and subversive of religion.'—'The truth and importance (he adds) of genuine Christianity, is the grand conclusion which the author wishes to establish: for he is firmly persuaded that to be a rational and practical believer in the Christian religion, is to employ the noblest powers of human nature under the best direction, and for the attainment of the best ends: it is to be wise, virtuous, and happy.'

This volume does not arrogate to itself the merit of unfolding a new system. It contains the substance of a course of lectures delivered to the author's pupils; and,

'As his ambition was not so much to attain the reputation of an original writer, as to communicate the most valuable instruction in the most eligible form, he has made no scruple of collecting information from every quarter, and has used without hesitation the method, and sometimes even the words, of other authors, when they have suited his purpose. To Dr. Hartley he is principally indebted; it having been the author's main design, in the first part of the work, to illustrate Hartley's Theory of Association. Of other authors he has also made a liberal use, but not without acknowledging his obligation, as the references in the margin will sufficiently testify. The plan he has adopted, has also made it necessary for him occasionally to use some repetitions, which he trusts that the candid reader will excuse.'

The elements commence with an introduction, in which the nature and use of the Philosophy of Mind are thus displayed:

'The

'The Philosophy of the Human Mind teaches man to know himself, and to improve, direct, and exert his intellectual faculties in a manner the most beneficial to himself and others.

'In particular, it impresses a just sense of the dignity of our rational nature, and the great end of intellectual existence; it directs to the best method of cultivating the mental powers, of preventing or correcting prejudice and error, and of enlarging the stock of useful knowledge. By analysing the principles of action, and tracing the origin and progress of affection, habit, and character, it leads to the proper discipline of the heart, and supplies the most efficacious means of correcting all undue bias of self-love, of resisting the motives to vice, of restraining the exorbitance of the passions, of cultivating virtuous principles, and of attaining that just and beautiful symmetry of the affections, that elevation of mind and disinterestedness of character, which, when combined with vigour of intellect and comprehension of views, constitute the true dignity and happiness of man.

'A correct knowledge of the structure of the mind, as far as it can be attained, is also of great use in social life. It necessarily lies at the foundation of every just theory of religion and morals. It is especially essential to the conduct of education upon a rational, liberal, and useful plan; both as it leads to the most easy and impressive mode of communicating instruction, and as, by exposing to view the various springs of action in the breast, it directs the intelligent observer to that mode of conduct and of discipline by which the tender and susceptible mind may be preserved from the aberrations of folly, and the pollution of vice; may be formed to wisdom, honour, and virtue; and may be led to the acquisition of those habits by which it may be qualified to appear with the most distinguished lustre and advantage in that sphere, whether of public or of private life, in which it may be destined afterwards to move.'

Having stated the importance of this science, Mr. B. lays down the rules of philosophizing, and proceeds to an enumeration and analysis of the mental faculties. In the section which treats of *Perception*, he doubts whether this be a simple principle; and because Life, whether vegetable or animal, is the result of a very complex organization, he is disposed to consider *Perception* also as a complex feeling, resulting from the combination of some unknown simple principles, which are the property of a discerptible and dissoluble substance. Nothing is offered to explain (which is indeed impossible) how Perception, or a Sentient Principle, may be generated out of inert matter: but, that we may not deny the possibility, it is added, 'Perhaps future and more accurate observations of the phenomena of Mind may solve this difficult problem.' We see no reason for such a *perhaps*; since it is no more probable that the percipient principle should perceive the nature of perception, than that the eye should see itself.

Respecting the seat of Perception, the following observation is made:

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'It is difficult to ascertain the particular region of the brain with which the power of thinking is more immediately connected. But as the nerves originate in the medullary part of the brain, and are themselves of a white medullary substance; as the perfection of the faculties depends upon the perfection of the medullary substance; and as all injuries to that substance affect the trains of ideas proportionably; it is sufficiently manifest that the white medullary substance of the brain is the immediate instrument by which ideas are presented to the mind.'

The theory of vibrations is admitted by Mr. B.; and he is of opinion that the known nature of sounds in general illustrates and confirms it; since the various vibrations existing at the same time in the air, without interrupting each other, make it credible that a similar phænomenon may take place in the medullary substance. Yet, while he regards this theory as probable, and as affording a solution of the phænomena of mental association, he reminds his pupils that 'the proper cause of nervous vibrations, the manner in which sensations, ideas, and museular motions are excited by them, and the nature of perception, are mysteries which still remain wholly unexplained.' The Human Understanding has a vast extent: but it has its limits; and it is probable that the solution of these difficulties is beyond the reach of its present powers. This reflection should impress the metaphysician with diffidence, and restrain him, in his mental reveries, from deducing revolting conclusions.

In the chapter on Memory, Mr. B. discusses the question concerning *Identity*; which, he says, 'is a simple idea which cannot be defined.' Indeed, to a materialist it is very perplexing, especially when combined with the belief of a future state. Dr. Watts's supposition *of certain permanent stamina, which in all changes of bodies remain the same*, is called 'ingenious,' because to some belief of this kind the Christian materialist must have recourse: but ought a philosopher to admit an hypothesis so entirely destitute of all shadow of support? Death is a complete dissolution of the corporeal system, and a resolution of all the particles which composed it into the great mass of matter, ready to enter into the composition of future fossils, vegetables, or animals; and no permanent stamina can be discovered by the most diligent investigation. The believer in the existence of a soul, by referring personal identity to a principle distinct from the body, has an evident advantage over the materialist in the contemplation of the doctrine of a resurrection. Mr. Belsham, however, shall speak for himself on this subject, for then we cannot be accused of misrepresenting him:

'Upon the whole, whether we can, or cannot distinctly analyse personal identity, the consciousness of every individual is to himself a sufficient ground for admitting the fact. Whether the system of habits and feelings, to which the word SELF is applied, be connected with one mass of matter or another, is of little consequence. But if any require that the same system of particles should be always connected with the same system of feelings, in order to constitute identity of person, Dr. Watts's hypothesis of permanent stamina, which, if not actually proved, has never been disproved, affords a proof of the possibility of permanent identity in this sense of the word, which may satisfy the most scrupulous materialist, and the most captious sceptic.

'The same hypothesis likewise establishes the possibility of a resurrection after death, a resurrection not only of the same conscious self, but even of the same body, that is, of the same stamina, if that should be thought necessary to constitute personal identity, which, however, cannot be proved. And upon the whole, till it can be clearly shown in what personal identity consists, it can never be proved that the resurrection of the same person is an absurdity or impossibility. This, therefore, is a doctrine which, being contradictory to no phenomenon of human nature, is capable of being established by sufficient authority.'

Ought not our reasoning on these premises to be different? Since the particles of the body are continually changing, while personal identity continues, (or as Locke terms it *the sameness of the rational being*; or as Butler, *the same consciousness*,) does not the argument favour the existence of a *sentient self* distinct from the body? This appears not improbable; and the materialist, before he enforces another creed, should be required to say, what it is in which personal identity consists.

Under the head of the Imagination, the author notices the phænomena of Dreams, which he defines to be the imaginations or reveries of a sleeping man, deducible from impressions lately received; from the state of the body, and particularly of the stomach or brain; or from association. On these nightly visions he makes several judicious observations, the last of which may be of practical use; 'A person may form a judgment of his health and temperance by the pleasantness or unpleasantness of his dreams, and likewise learn some useful hints relating to the strength of the passions.'

Among the cases of imperfection of the rational faculties, that of *the frequent recurrency of the same ideas* is particularly specified; and for its cure, 'a *close* attention to religion and virtue' is recommended. We notice this recipe on account of its seeming piety, rather than of the judgment which it evinces: it is a clerical but not a philosophical prescription. For a close attention to religion, the objects of which are vast and sublime, the mind ought to be in a sound state; and whenever persons whose

whose rational faculties are disordered become religionists, their religion rather increases than obviates the malady.

We must pass over Mr. B.'s remarks on the phænomena of brutes; and the percipiency of vegetables, and proceed to his chapter on the Affections natural and acquired. Whether that faculty which is termed *Instinct* in brutes is intitled to the former or to the latter epithet, we shall not stay to inquire, but shall attend to the more useful remarks relative to Habit:

'Moral habits, when they are formed and matured, constitute the perfection, either of the virtuous or the vicious character. Disinterested benevolence is the highest eminence of virtue, disinterested malignity the lowest stage of vice.

'That the pain of denial should increase while the sensible pleasure of the habit diminishes, and even after it is become almost imperceptible, may be explained thus. The simple sensible pleasure of the action constitutes a very small part of the actual gratification. The pleasurable feelings which have accompanied the progress of the habit, having associated themselves with the persons, places, actions, and other circumstances which have been the usual adjuncts of the situation in which the habit has been contracted, have thus, as it were, transferred a lustre to those objects, which totally disappears when the habit is interrupted. The student cannot relish his author, nor the disputant his argument, if he is denied the accustomed indulgence of his pipe: nor can the convivial man enjoy the company, or the conversation of his friends, if the bottle does not circulate with the usual freedom. Thus by the power of association the real pleasure of the gratification of habit is in exact proportion to the pain of want, though the immediate sensible pleasure may be lost.

'Men fall insensibly under the power of habit: and it is often remarked that the influence of habit is most conspicuous, and even irresistible, where the subject of it is least aware of his bondage, and is most forward in boasting of his liberty.

'Most if not all the affections which have usually been regarded as instinctive or natural, will be found upon attentive examination to be acquired; and the progress of the most important moral habits is exactly similar to that of the most common and frivolous of the acquired affections.'

A distinct section is appropriated to the subject of Wit, which thus concludes:

'Hence it appears that laughter will be excited in different persons according to their different opinions or dispositions: that persons of light minds will be disposed to profuse laughter by the application of low contrasts, similitudes, &c. to serious subjects, and that this levity of disposition will be increased by it. Also, that persons who give themselves up to mirth, wit, and humour, must thereby disqualify their understandings for the search after truth; as by perpetually hunting after apparent and partial agreements and disagreements, while the true nature of things affords real agreements or disagreements that are perhaps quite opposite, a man must by degrees pervert all his notions

notions of things themselves, and become unable to see them as they really are.'

When we arrive at the chapter on *the Will*, which introduces the discussion of the doctrines of Liberty and Necessity, we see Mr. Belsham exerting all the force of his mind to refute the arguments in favour of philosophical liberty, and to establish the doctrine of philosophical necessity. He first states the question:

'Volition (says he) is that state of mind which is immediately previous to actions which are called voluntary. The WILL is the faculty which the mind possesses, or is supposed to possess, or bringing itself into that state.'—'Libertarians differ among themselves with regard to the extent of this "self-determining power," as they choose to call it. Some extend its influence to all voluntary actions; others limit the exercise of it to some mental operations only: such, for example, as the act of suspending the choice, of deliberating, of choosing out of contending motives, and the like.

'But this makes no difference in the state of the question. Limit the self-determining power as much as you please, the question still recurs, Can you suspend, deliberate, &c. without a reason for it, without inclination to it, and where you have the strongest motives to the contrary? The libertarian replies Yes; the necessarian, No; and upon this fact they join issue.'

Were we to enter fully into the arguments here adduced for and against Liberty, we should trespass on our other engagements. Mr. B., it must be confessed, fairly meets the objections urged against Philosophical Necessity; and of his manner of answering them, the following is no unfavourable specimen:

'Objection.—The doctrine of Philosophical Necessity makes God the only proper agent in the universe, and the author of all evil both natural and moral.

'Answer. 1. The doctrine of philosophical necessity does not make God the APPROVER of evil, nor represent him as choosing it for its own sake.

'2. This doctrine supposes that a certain quantity of evil, natural and moral, was unavoidable in a system upon the whole most worthy of the Supreme Being, and eventually productive of the greatest good. In this view God may be said to be the AUTHOR of evil; he permitted and appointed it by placing his creatures in circumstances of which natural and moral evil were the necessary and foreseen result.

'3. The doctrine of liberty and prescience is open to the same difficulty. All who admit these principles must, if consistent with themselves, allow that the Deity has placed his creatures in circumstances, the foreknown, certain, inevitable, and therefore *intended* consequence of which, was the introduction of natural and moral evil.

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'To say that the creatures of God might in every particular instance have avoided vice, is frivolous and groundless. How could that be avoided which was foreknown as a certain event?

'To argue that foreknowledge had no influence over the event, which would have happened with equal certainty if it had not been foreseen, is nothing to the purpose. The prescience of a mere SPECTATOR implies indeed nothing more than certainty of event, in the production of which, the spectator as such hath no concern. The prescience of an AGENT is materially different. Every intelligent being must mean to produce that effect which he foresees will be the certain consequence of his own voluntary act. The Supreme Being, therefore, is in this sense the author of evil, upon the hypothesis of liberty and prescience, as much as upon the principle of necessity. The distinction attempted to be made in this case between permission and appointment, is altogether verbal.

'4. The scriptures both of the Old and New Testament represent the Deity as the author of evil in the sense already explained, Isaiah, xiv. 7.; Amos, iii. 6.; Rom. ix. 18.

'5. That God is in this sense the author of evil, will not justify his creatures in violating the rules of virtue, and doing evil under pretence of accomplishing a greater good. It is not unjust in the Deity to expose any of his creatures to a limited degree of evil, as the best means of accomplishing his own benevolent purposes; for God is the sovereign proprietor of all, and may dispose of his creatures as he pleases without being accountable to any, nor have they any claim upon their Maker further than this, that existence shall not be eventually a curse. It is also in his power to make ample and infinite compensation for whatever temporary evils they may endure. But it does not therefore follow that a being whose character is imperfect, and whose views are limited, is at liberty to inflict upon a fellow-being, over whose existence and happiness he has no inherent authority, a portion of evil which it is not in his power to redress or to compensate, in order to obtain what he presumes to call a greater good, but of which he is neither competent nor authorised to judge. To plead the example of the Deity, in a case so totally dissimilar as not to afford the slightest analogy, is folly and impiety in the extreme.

'6. If the introduction of evil be really contrary to the divine intention, as contradiction to the will of any being necessarily produces uneasiness, and moral evil is infinitely odious to the Deity, God must be infinitely unhappy.

'7. To deny, or to limit the prescience of God, leads to consequences so absurd, and so dishonourable to the Supreme Being and his government, and is so directly contradictory to the whole tenor of divine revelation, and subversive of its principal evidence, that it affords a strong presumption against the truth of a hypothesis of which this is the necessary or the probable consequence. Upon the whole, therefore, the advocates for philosophical liberty are reduced to the dilemma, either of denying the foreknowledge of God, and thus robbing the Deity of one of his most glorious attributes, or of admitting that God is the author of evil, in the same sense and in the

the same degree, in which this doctrine is charged upon the necessarians.'

We should state with reluctance the inferences which an acute reasoner might deduce from these premises. Mr. Belsham admits that the doctrine of Necessity is inseparably connected with that of Optimism, or that every thing is for the best; and on this ground, Vice is as necessary a part of the system of the universe as Virtue; so that the doctrine of Necessity must incline us to respect the one as much as the other. It is true that Mr. B. adds, that 'the doctrine of Necessity countenances the expectation of the ultimate restoration of all the rational creatures of God to virtue and happiness:' but this splendid vision is to be regarded rather as the poetry of metaphysics, than as logically flowing from any of the writer's demonstrations.

Before we reach the discussion 'concerning Materialism and Immaterialism,' we have a chapter 'concerning Power;' in which the author observes that 'God appears to be the primary cause of all the phenomena of mind as well as of those of matter, and to be the only proper agent in the universe.' In referring the powers of the mind to Deity, do we not advance into the region of spirit; and ought we not to question the accuracy of that reasoning, which would prove the sentient principle to be the mere result of material organization, unless we mean rashly to deny the spirituality of the Divine Nature? Though, however, Mr. B. does not presume "*by searching to find out God*," he decides very confidently on the nature of that rational principle in man, which immediately proceeds from the Creator. After having exhibited the common arguments in favour of materialism, he tells us that 'it is as reasonable to conclude that perception is the result of organization, as that pointing the hour is the result of the mechanism of a watch, or that the colour and odour of the violet is the consequence of its peculiar structure: and we have as good reason to believe that thought is an affection or attribute of the brain, as that fragrance is a property of a rose, or that light and heat proceed from the sun.' We may venture to say that the premises do not justify such a conclusion; and that the reasoning is completely unphilosophical. Is there any analogy between thought and fragrancy?

These Elements on the Philosophy of Mind conclude with the natural evidences of a Future State. Arguments deemed inconclusive are first exhibited, and next those that are more probable; to which are subjoined General Remarks. The arguments deduced from the immateriality of the soul, from the

dread

dread of annihilation, from conscience, from the capacity for endless improvement, from the justice of God, and from the probability of future life being greater than the antecedent probability of actual existence, are classed among the former; while the probable arguments are thought to be, the capacity of expecting and of being influenced by a future existence, the moral constitution of man, the moral government of God, the pains of death, the appointed provision of mental discipline, and the general expectation of a future life. Do not some of these probable arguments very nearly resemble those which Mr. B. treats as inconclusive? In truth, the whole combined can amount to a mere probability, and the only satisfactory evidence is the testimony of revelation. Hence Mr. Belsham sums up his elaborate dissertation in the following words:

'The grand conclusion from all the preceding facts and reasonings is the INFINITE VALUE OF THE CHRISTIAN REVELATION, of the divine origin of which they constitute a strong presumptive argument.

'The Christian religion teaches with authority the doctrine of a future life; it places this doctrine upon its proper ground, a resurrection from the grave; it proves the truth of it by the miracles of those who were commissioned to publish it to the world; and it exhibits an example and a pledge of the final resurrection of all mankind in the person of Jesus of Nazareth, the great MESSENGER OF TRUTH, and the FOUNDER OF THE CHRISTIAN FAITH.'

We now proceed to the Elements of Moral Philosophy, which are more useful and less embarrassing.

As the only valuable end of existence is happiness, Mr. B. defines the essence or desirableness of *virtue* to consist in its tendency to the ultimate happiness of the agent; and the nature of *vice* to be the reverse. The several objections to this definition are considered. In replying to the charge that 'this account of virtue is inconsistent with the disinterested love of virtue and the practice of it for its own sake, which is nevertheless the happiest state of moral excellence,' he is led to give a theory of the disinterested affections; which, as affording a complete explanation, we shall transcribe:

'For the solution of this difficulty it will be proper to pay a little attention to the history of those affections which are called disinterested.

'Actions originally pleasurable, or indifferent, or even in a considerable degree painful, are performed at first from an interested motive; that is, with a view to gratification, or advantage.

'Actions repeated a sufficient number of times generate affections, or tendencies to perform the action independent of the advantage to be derived from it.

'The

'The same causes continuing to operate, the affection will gradually attain such a degree of vigour, as to be of itself sufficient to produce the action, without any attention whatever to the interested motive.

'The affection in this state is called disinterested; and the essence of a disinterested affection is, that its only object is its own gratification.

'Hence it follows, that disinterestedness respects the *degree*, not the *tendency*, of the affection, and that it is equally applicable to affections of good or bad tendency, that is, either virtuous or vicious. Thus *avarice* as well as *benevolence* may be in a high degree disinterested, that is, when money is saved from a mere habit of saving, without any explicit view either to present or to future advantage.

'An affection, therefore, the tendency of which is to ultimate happiness, may at the same time be perfectly disinterested: and it is necessary to consummate virtue, that is, to perfect felicity, that it should be so. The objection, therefore, against the definition of virtue given above, as being inconsistent with the disinterested love of virtue, is of no weight, being founded in ignorance of, or inattention to, the true theory of human nature.

'From the history of the disinterested affections it is also obvious, that virtuous actions are first performed from interested motives, and that by the repetition of these actions virtuous affections are generated, which gradually become disinterested.

'Hence it follows, that it is an error to represent virtuous affections as innate, and likewise to assert that a disinterested love of virtue is the first approach to a virtuous character: it would be equally consistent with the true philosophy of the mind to maintain, that the first step towards avarice is a disinterested love of money.'

Moral Obligations and the Moral Sense are explained, as well as the manner of rightly appreciating the moral value of an action. The section on the Moral Value of Character, which 'consists in the sum total of moral habits and affections,' concludes with a picture of the moral state of the world; and in the corollaries, the author maintains the probability of the existence of *a Purgatory*, in which the sinner is to be purified for final happiness by sufferings 'beyond conception more severe than any endured in the present life.' It is not, however, to be supposed that Mr. Belsham believes in a purgatory distinct from heaven and hell: but he must consider the latter as the refining furnace, in which those who are greatly polluted by vice are to be ultimately prepared by torture for the celestial state. Surely, from an elementary treatise, such an effusion of the imagination might have been excluded.

Assuming as facts the existence of God and of a future state, the author distinctly enumerates the several means of virtue; and, after having defined what appears to him to be the

most probable theory of morals, in the remaining sections he distinctly examines the theories of Clarke, Hutcheson, Reid, Price, Wollaston, Cumberland, Rutherford, Browne, Adam Smith, Hume, Hartley, Paley, Cooper, Gisborne, and Godwin. On the last of these, he remarks:

'Mr. Godwin's account of virtue labours under the essential defect of omitting a clear and distinct analysis of moral obligation; and if he has proved that justice requires the sacrifice of individual interest, to general good, he has not made out in a satisfactory manner the reason why the individual in extreme cases is bound to obey the requisition of justice.

'The true state of the question, therefore, appears to be this: not whether men whose minds have been exercised with a certain discipline, will in given circumstances readily sacrifice their interest and even their existence to the public good, for this is an undoubted fact: nor yet whether such conduct would meet with general applause, for that likewise must be admitted; but whether such conduct is obligatory upon the individual, and whether such applause is judicious and well-founded. Men's actual conduct, and general approbation are very inaccurate criteria of real merit. If the individual is told that he is under indispensable obligation to sacrifice his own greatest ultimate good to the happiness of others, he has a right to inquire, and it behoves him with the utmost solicitude to examine, upon what ground he is obliged to make so precious a sacrifice: and it will be found much easier to make the assertion, than to establish the obligation.

'If A is to decide upon the destiny of B and C, he may with propriety, from regard to the general good, sacrifice the interest of B to that C. But this can never prove to B that it is his duty to sacrifice his own greatest ultimate good to the interest of C. To the "valet of Fenelon" his own felicity must be more dear than that of Fenelon himself: and why *ought* he to part with his all, that Fenelon and a few others may each receive an addition, whether less or more, to their respective sums of happiness? No sacrifices therefore to the general good are, or can be obligatory, where there is not a prospect of adequate compensation. But this in extreme cases is possible only upon the hypothesis of a future life, and under the government of a Being of consummate wisdom and benevolence. In which case, to suppose that any being can be ultimately a loser by the greatest sacrifices he can make of self-interest to the good of others would be extravagant and absurd. And this brings us to the important conclusion, that SELF-LOVE AND BENEVOLENCE CAN ONLY BE RECONCILED BY RELIGION.'

We acquiesce in this reasoning, and in this conclusion.

The compendium of Logic prefixed to these treatises on Mental Philosophy and Morals is, like Watts's Essay on the same subject, divided into four parts: on Perception, Judgment, Reasoning, and Method. The arrangement is correct,

the definitions are clear, and the whole is calculated to assist the reasoning faculty, and to shew the importance of regular and systematic study.

ART. X. *Paris delineated, from the French of Mercier*, including a Description of the principal Edifices and Curiosities of that Metropolis. 2 Vols. 8vo. 13s. Boards. Symonds. 1802.

THE principal mass of this publication consists of a selection from Mercier's celebrated and very amusing work, the *Tableau de Paris*, written under the *old* regime; preceded by a chapter which is calculated to serve as a guide to the stranger in exploring Modern Paris. It commences with stating that metropolis to be two miles in breadth, and, including its suburbs, six in circumference *: but we believe that this agrees as little with the fact, as we see it accords with the scale of the map of Paris which faces the title. The Gallery of the Louvre, it is also said, is 'nearly half a mile in length;' that is, occupying an extent nearly equal to one quarter of the breadth of the whole city. Respecting the National Library, we are informed that 'nothing *approaching* it has ever been seen in Europe.'

The *Champ de Mars* is pointed out to particular notice as 'a spot sacred to enthusiasm, immortalized by the grand day of federation, when Louis XVI. swore fidelity to the constitution amidst the acclamations of a hundred and fifty thousand people.' Had his priests advised him to keep instead of to break this oath, how much better would it have been for himself, his family, and his country!—The Palace of Versailles is mentioned as having internally fallen into a state of comparative obscurity and insignificance, though its exterior is preserved uninjured. The city must of late have materially diminished in population, since, in the chapter at the end of Vol. I. intitled *the Gallery of Versailles*, Mercier speaks of its numbers as amounting to one hundred thousand; while, in the almanacks for the present year of the Republic, its population is given at only 35,093.

This description of Modern Paris concludes with the following useful hint: 'It remains to inform the traveller, that the usual mode of living at Paris is at the Restaurateur's. Beauvilliers, in the Palais Royal, is a complete model of elegance and luxury. By those, however, who have not a fortune to dissipate in delicacies, the Table d'Hote will be found ade-

* Mercier, in chapter 13, says that the Boulevards alone are 6 miles and 83 toises in circumference.

quate to every rational object of accommodation, and the Maison de Hambourg, Rue des Filles de St. Thomas, has received from a judicious traveller, an highly flattering recommendation.'

Adaptation to the present times is the avowed principle on which this selection from the volumes of Mercier has been made; and 'it has been thought proper to omit the notice of buildings which have been destroyed and customs which have been abolished since the Revolution:' but we do not admit the propriety of such omissions. What is history but a record of past events?—Happily, the compiler has sometimes forgotten the maxim by which he professes to be guided; as the chapter on the Gallery of Versailles, already mentioned, in part evinces.

It is curious to observe, in almost every section, that enlargement of thought and that emancipation of mind from the trammels of Popish superstition, which combined with other circumstances to effect the Revolution. Let the reader judge by the following short extracts from the chapter on *Religious Liberty:*

'Churches are not frequented but on festivals; the ceremonies then attract the multitude: in Lent they are commonly filled, as they have celebrated preachers at this season. Three parts of the congregation are women.

'No person that I know was ever refused parochial burial but Voltaire; the curate of St. Sulpice little understood the interests of his religion by this refusal: ten other curates in his place would have buried him; first, because he was dead, and secondly, because *they might have said* he had died a Christian.'—

'The protestants had a church at Charenton large enough to contain fourteen thousand people; it was there they held their national synods. The wise edict of Nantz, granted by Henry IV. being revoked by the cruel intolerance of Louis XIV. this temple was destroyed in five days.

'The protestants have now no church; they attend the ambassador's chapel. They are still a considerable body, and compose the sixth part of the capital. They insult no persons of another communion in their worship, and have a right to enjoy their own. They are peaceable, industrious, and wait in silence for a change, which the light of reason must infallibly one day effect in morals and in politics.'

That the system of popery was on the decline previously to the Revolution, an anecdote from the chapter on *Convents*, will amply prove:

'A father being desirous of having his daughter married, whom he had placed in a convent for education, experienced the most decided opposition to his wish from the society, and having taken

taken her home, would not permit her again to return to the convent, being determined to cure her of her aversion to the world. Two days after she had left the convent, he received the following letter:—"God Almighty, to whom every thing belongs, sovereign of the universe and all its creatures, judge both of the living and the dead. Hear, impious man, the words of thy God: if you despise them, I will command the exterminating angel to strike you dead before the end of the year. Dost thou dare to prefer the charms of wealth to thy immortal soul? and give way to your ambitious views in opposition to my will? Dost not thou know that I am the author of every good, and that I distribute my blessings as I see proper? Thy daughter belongs to me, both her existence and her will are at my disposal? Art not thou too happy in the knowledge that I place her among the number of my wives, and that she has by her prayers disarmed my justice towards thee of its terrors? Thy crimes have merited exemplary punishment, and already is my arm uplifted to annihilate thee; it is only the holy place of her residence which has softened my displeasure. If you presume to hesitate in returning her to the convent, tremble; my uplifted arm shall descend in vengeance on thy head."

'The father, however, saw very clearly that God Almighty never could dictate such a letter; he despised the fanatic who had forged it too much even to make any inquiry after him, and married his daughter to a man of honour in the army, who soon taught her to lose all relish for a convent. The father is still alive, and embraces with rapture the children of his daughter, who, instead of being the unprofitable and barren inmate of a convent, makes a most excellent mother of a family.'

Speaking of the severity of the game laws under the old government, Mercier informs us that 'the killing of a partridge was a crime which nothing but the gallies could expiate;' and that, 'if a poacher is killed by the game-keepers, the murderer is not only unpunished but sometimes rewarded.' Could such tyranny be long endured by a people advancing in knowlege, and sensible of the duties owing from man to man? It is more rational to account for the French Revolution by abuses existing in France, than by hunting for its cause in a dark closet in Germany.

In casting our eyes over this compilation, our attention was attracted by another passage, in which Mercier pays a flattering compliment to England and its constitution, and which recommends wise policy to his own countrymen as well as to us:

'Politicians perhaps, skimming only on the surface, do not perceive that every where around them a great change is taking place, and that the progress of the human mind, becoming as it does every day more enlightened, calls aloud for this useful union. When a philosopher peruses the page of history, he perceives that mankind have constantly been employed in doing what they ought not to have done.

'And indeed it may be justly observed, that if the English and French, by a mutual intercourse both of trade and sentiment, could do away this ancient jealousy, which has continually blinded them to their true interests, they would very soon perceive how very ill-founded has been that national antipathy, and that they are designed by nature to unite the powers of their minds, and by that means peacefully obtain the superiority over the rest of Europe.

'And such an union, so plausible in the eye of the philosopher, and indeed the secret wish of many profound politicians, would disseminate science by the example of such an happy innovation.

'If the English appear to have the advantage in the simplicity of their manners, and the exercise of domestic virtues, cannot the French enjoy the same by only giving the preference to ease and convenience instead of a vain display of luxury, which sacrifices real happiness at the shrine of prodigality?

'And notwithstanding all our exertions, it must be confessed that neither experimental philosophy, nor arts and manufactures, have attained among us that pitch of perfection that they have with the English. Happy country, which enjoys a constitution the best adapted to preserve a just equilibrium between the laws and the dignity of man. May this nation, after having extinguished their civil discords, and shewn the greatness of their resources in an alarming crisis, offer to their neighbours a participation of their wealth, their improved knowledge, and the arts, and thus reap a solid advantage by an exchange with those of France!'

It would be happy for both countries, if Englishmen and Frenchmen could profit by this advice: they might then command the peace and riches of the world. National prejudice, however, will probably obstruct the attainment of such stupendous blessings.

The merit of the translation of this work may be appreciated by the preceding extracts.

ART. XI. *The Praise of Paris:* or, A Sketch of the French Capital; in Extracts of Letters from France, in the Summer of 1802; with an Index of many of the Convents, Churches, and Palaces, not in the French Catalogues, which have furnished Pictures for the Louvre Gallery. By S. W., F.R.S. F.A.S. 8vo. pp. 200. 5s. 6d. Boards. C. and R. Baldwin. 1803.

VARIOUS sketches of Paris have already been, and probably will yet be, exhibited to the British Public, of which we may say nearly in the words of Pope,

"How many pictures of one *place* we view!
All how unlike each other, all how true!"

The author of the volume before us is understood to be the Rev. Stephen Weston, a gentleman of considerable literary repu-

reputation. It is evident that the letters from which extracts are here made were not composed with a view to publication, since they contain only those short notices and rapid delineations of objects with which ingenious men generally content themselves, when writing merely for the entertainment of their friends: but, though they were not intended for the public eye, they are not unworthy of general acceptance. As a great painter will be evinced by a few strokes of his pencil, so a writer of taste and genius will manifest himself in the shortest compositions. Mr. Weston describes with brevity, indeed *, but with force. Sometimes he is learned; at others, his remarks are sprightly and playful; and the information which he conveys, though not entirely satisfactory, may yet be of use to the future visitors of the French capital.

Having been acquainted with Paris before the Revolution, the author is able to contrast its present with its former state; and in doing this he contemplates it with other sensations than those which he felt when he fled from it in the year 1792, when, as he says, it was possessed with a demoniacal spirit of carnage. Borrowing a simile from the Scriptures, Mr. W. observes that, on his return to this city in the year 1802, he found it so *swept and garnished*, so restored to its senses, and so much in its right mind, that he felt himself inclined to sing *the Praise of Paris*. Let not the reader imagine, however, that this praise is so extravagant and unqualified as to mislead any of the family of John Bull. There is no danger of this sort; the pasquinade at times grins at the panegyric, and preserves us from the *ennui* which might result from monotonous eulogy.

As a classical scholar, Mr. W. attends first to the derivation of the word *Paris*; which is compounded of *Par Isis*, because the city was built near to the famous temple of that goddess. To illustrate this remark, a plate is given, fronting the title, representing the image of Isis nursing Orus, now deposited at the *Petits Augustins*, under which is written *De par Isis vient Paris*. The Latin name, it is added, is derived from Λευκότης, *whiteness*, alluding to the white plaister quarry on which Paris is built.

The attractions of the French metropolis, on account of its containing the richest assemblage of the productions of the fine arts, obtain this notice:

'Paris was ever a place of general rendezvous, but now more so than at any known period; and since it has drawn within its circle all the curiosities of Holland, and the Low Countries, all the trea-

* The letters are in general very short, and more than one are composed only of two sentences.

sures of Italy, all the wonders of ancient art, it is become the general magazine of Sculpture and Painting, whilst all other Museums are left naked and desolate. This unusual accumulation of pictures, designs, tessellated pavements, vases, and statues, is amassed together in one palace, and distributed through galleries, which, for their uncommon length, make the objects appear as if they were viewed through an inverted telescope. The various masters press close upon one another, and the different schools jostle each other: one moment you are in France, and the next in Flanders; whilst you are conversing with Poussin and Le Sueur, Antwerp and Rubens appear in view; from Venice to Naples is but a step, and Florence, Rome, and Bologna are all visited and gone over in a morning. Formerly it was a very different thing, and from one picture to another it was a week's journey. Every thing however has its inconvenience, the cross lights dazzle the eye, and the want of partitions with the sudden transition from one school to another, so blend the masters together, that you are not only puzzled to distinguish the different painters of the same school, but even one school from another. The elegant forms of the French female artists, mounted on their scaffolds, and the interesting works of a Cosway on the floor, afford considerable pleasure to the curious as well as the incurious connoisseur of taste and elegance, and heighten the carnations of the grand pasticcio.

'The gallery of the Louvre is the great feature of Paris, which is itself a vast *bonbonniere*, an immense *academie de jeu*, and an enormous *table d'hôte*; where all nations meet, like travellers through a desert at a watering place.'

Next succeeds a sketch of the French theatres; after which we are presented with the following useful hints respecting the *Hotels*:

'You may be lodged and fed at Paris on very reasonable terms, if you are single, or few in number, and in small parties; but if you are numerous, and have families, you cannot be accommodated with good apartments under twenty guineas a month, whilst the very best in the first hotels are charged, forty, fifty, and sixty. If you have a party, you dine at home, and if it be large, you will do well to have a cook of your own; but if single, you may be *abonné* at one of the first hotels in the *rue de la Loi* for seven pounds ten a month, with the very best company, and the best eating-room, with a whole suite of magnificent apartments, and a delicious garden at your command; wine most excellent, coffee and liqueur both included; with tea at night, and orgeat and lemonade *ad libitum*. You may be lodged in this hotel also at a very reasonable rate, for three, four, five, or six louis a month. There are other dining places of good credit, where on paying four livres in the *rue St. Honoré*, you go and come as you like after your first introduction, which is necessary wherever you go. In the *rue Faydeau*, you may be presented as *Etranger* to the lady of the house, and dine still better for *cent sous*, or five livres a time. At Beauvillier's, Very's, and Nicolet's, you may fare excellently well for six livres; and when you are not tied down, you may vary your dinner place at pleasure. The general hour of dining is five o'clock;

o'clock; and the theatres open at seven. During the summer months a carriage may be dispensed with, and when you go to the Audience on court days, you may hire a remise for twelve hours, for eighteen livres, or at most for twenty-one, including the coachman.'

The Levee of the First Consul, the Libraries, Gems, Medals, Books, the Magazine Library, *La Monnoie*, *les Petits Augustins*, the Library of the Arsenal, and *le Jardin des Plantes*, are the titles of some very short letters. We have also accounts of the French Funds and other property, of the Gardens of Tivoli, of public buildings, &c. &c.

The degree of liberty enjoyed at Paris is thus described:

'The *espionnage* of Paris is, they say, much increased, and yet there is no persecution for opinions; you may say what you will, if you do not act upon it. No man would be reported to the police for observing that the laws of the twelve tables, of Draco, and the guillotine, were all of the same colour; or that Fortune always paid her debts; and if she let Theodore die in the King's bench, she set Napoleon upon the throne at St. Cloud; if she ruined one King of Corsica, she gave another Corsican a better kingdom; indeed, the very best she has to give.'

Some letters on antiquities, which display the author's erudition and his numismatic skill, next occur.—We could wish to give his table comparative of the charges of the most eminent *restaurateurs* in the years 1792 and 1802; but it is too long for insertion. If we admit another extract, it must be the sketch of the environs of Paris:

'The environs of Paris are all delightful, but few excursions are made, except to St. Cloud, Versailles, St. Germain's, Vincennes, Meudon, &c. At Arcueil, within a league of Paris nearly, are the ruins of an aqueduct, which conducted the waters to Julian's Palace, in the *rue de la Harpe*, of which there are still good remains, and full sufficient to shew how the ancients constructed their houses, and built with an everlasting cement, of which we have not yet discovered the composition. These antiquities within and without Paris are among the most remarkable in this part of France. For beauty of country, and inequality of ground, in order to have a fine view of the capital, you must go to Montmorency, and the Terrace of St. Leu. The Chateau of Montmorency is now the property of a banker;

> And Hemsley, once proud Buckingham's delight,
> Slides to a Scrivener, or a City-Knight.

'This excursion is about eleven miles from the gate of St. Denis; in your way, you pass La Barre, Choisi, and Aubin, which supply Paris in abundance with plums and cherries; but this year has not been very productive, since July was all water, and August all fire. After you have passed St. Denis, you turn to the left, a little beyond the *grande caserne*, ci-devant a *chateau*, that is made to hold fifteen hundred

hundred soldiers. A little farther is Lisle, a Ducal Palace, now the residence of a rich Bourgeois; it is near the river, and looks, at a little distance, like Ford-Abbey in Devonshire, or Knoll in Kent. Farther on still, on the right, is the house of a Citizen, formerly *un marchand de rats dans la rue Tire-chappe St. Honoré*, a great discounter of bills, broker, and stock-jobber, who has bought up all the country round about him. As you approach Montmorency, where was Rousseau's hermitage, with Emile, Julie, and Contrat social on the urns, vases, chairs, and commodes, you have in view the pretty villages of Molyon and St. Pris, and La Reveilliere le Pau's house, the great Theophilanthropist. If you do not mean to go to Montmorency, you continue your road on to the village of St. Leu, and then mount the hill to the right, and go to the Chateau of the Seigneur, who keeps a boarding-house. The Chateau is not in the very best repair, and the grounds want improvements; but as they are, they must charm and delight all visitors; the prospect they command is very extensive; and the protection they afford in their woods, against the excessive heat of such a summer as the last, is the best recommendation I can give them; to say nothing of the society, the cheer, which is admirable, and the very moderate terms on which so many comforts are procured, all conspire to make foreigners very ambitious of paying their respects to the Lord of St. Leu. The neighbouring Chateau, whose grounds are watered from the springs that arise in the woods I have been just praising, was once the property of the Duke of Orleans, and purchased by his Grace of the Lord of St. Leu, but never paid for, and by the operation of the revolution never will, since it has been seized as the Duke of Orleans's own, by one of his creditors, Citizen Homberg, of Havre.'

We are obliged to the author for the entertainment which he has afforded us; and we hope that he will not deem the value of our gratitude diminished, if we lament the occurrence of a number of inaccuracies and inelegancies of style; as '*twinkling* of a decree,'—'near the great opera, *you have* Tom Jones,'—'It is still the fashion to run to Versailles *of a Sunday*,'—'as many infidelities as it would be necessary to read the *causes célèbres* to equal *the number of*,'—'engraved *long ways*,' &c. An easy style may be allowed in epistolary composition, but in the letters of a gentleman and a scholar there should be bounds to colloquial vulgarisms and ungrammatical construction.—The *Ornithorhynchus Paradoxus* is twice mentioned by Mr. W. with the name differently spelt. As an F.R.S. might he not have referred to the account and the engravings of this singular animal, in the recent vols. of the Philosophical Transactions? (See Rev. vol. xxxix. p. 403.)

The French, as well as the English, must consider themselves as indebted to Mr. Weston for supplying the omissions in the catalogues of pictures in the Louvre Gallery.

Art.

ART. XII. *Sermons on the Dignity of Man, and the Value of the Objects principally relating to Human Happiness.* From the German of the late Rev. George Joachim Zollikofer, Minister of the Reformed Congregation at Leipsick. By the Rev. William Tooke, F.R.S. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1802.

OUR English divines are in general reputed to surpass all other moralists in respect to the *matter* of their discourses. Massillon, perhaps, will bear away the prize, if his merits be estimated by the magic of his eloquence: but, in solidity, and in copiousness of argument, he must yield the palm to Barrow. The one excells by a happier address, and a more splendid *copiâ verborum*; the other captivates by the very want of ornament, by his unaffected gravity, *et rerum abundantiâ*.

In seeking our rivals on the continent, however, in this department of literature, we must extend our inquiries beyond the limits of the Gallican church; and, since the productions of German authors are become so familiar through the medium of translations, it will be requisite to know with what formidable opponents we have to contend in the Reformed Churches of that quarter.—In this examination, the specimen of Mr. Zollikofer's Sermons, which is now presented to the English public, will sufficiently evince that just conceptions of morality, sound philosophical reasoning, perspicuity, and simplicity, are not peculiar to the English pulpit. They breathe the pure and genuine spirit of Christianity, and they exhibit religion to our view in a form the most animating and alluring; for, avoiding to terrify her votaries by disfiguring her bright countenance with an austere and gloomy brow, they rather invite and encourage all to approach her presence, as to a kind and condescending queen, who sits serene and cheerful on her throne, and dispenses to all her subjects true wisdom, consolation, peace, and joy. We see little in these sermons, indeed, to display the theological learning of their author, and little that is explanatory in regard to peculiar texts of Scripture; they discuss not human creeds and systems of divinity: but they explain the nature and grounds of Christian morality, and reconcile it with the best dictates of philosophy; they reveal man to himself, and discover a talent seldom possessed—a knowlege of the human heart. We formerly had occasion to notice a treatise of *Devotional Exercises* by this author, translated by an ingenious dissenting clergyman at Exeter *, and of them also we spoke with much approbation. We are not yet, however, in possession of all Mr. Zollikofer's works: but, by

* See M. R. vol. xx. p. 164. N. S.

the

the assistance of Mr. Tooke, who, it appears, is continuing his useful labours in this line, we may expect shortly to have them complete.

These two volumes are prefaced by some account of the author; who was born at St. Gall in Swisserland, the 5th of August 1730, first chosen a preacher at Murten in the Pays de Vaud, then minister to a congregation at Monstein in the Grisons, from which place he was soon invited to Isenburgh; and who was lastly called to the Reformed church at Leipsick, of which he died pastor on Jan. 22d, 1788: the whole of his numerous congregation, with some hundreds of the students of the University, and numbers of the Lutheran communion, attending his body to the grave, with every token of unfeigned sorrow. We can readily believe, from the amiable and cheerful picture which he draws of religion, that he united in his temper a happy mixture of seriousness and dignity, and of gentleness and hilarity, which must have rendered him generally beloved. Respecting his sermons, we quote the words of his biographer as a confirmation of our previous remarks:

'Several volumes of his excellent discourses have for some years been in the hands of the public, and are in high and deserved repute wherever the German language is understood, by all persons to whom religion and virtue are objects of importance; to which the number of editions they have gone through and are continually publishing, bear ample testimony, as well as of the taste and judgment of the times in compositions of this nature. For whoever is intent upon reading spiritual discourses, in which the truths of religion are delivered free from all learned theological sophistries and controversies, in the most harmonious order, and in the noblest expressions, perfectly adapted to the subject, with all that can excite a true cordial interest in it, in which so many fatal prejudices are combated with the invincible arms of truth, in which the beauty and blessedness of virtue are represented in the most glowing colours, in which the several incitements and means to the practice of it are clearly and persuasively pointed out, wherein the value of so many objects, which though seldom discoursed of in the sacred chair, yet have so vast an influence on human happiness and human misery, are placed in the most just and perspicuous point of view; in short, if he would read purely for the sake of becoming wiser and happier, what can he read better than the sermons of Zollikofer?'

Volume I. contains 25 sermons, on the following subjects: *The Dignity of Man.—What is in Opposition to the Dignity of Man.—How and by what Means Christianity restores the Dignity of Man.—The Value of Human Life.—Of Health.—Of Riches.—Of Honour.—Of Sensual Pleasure.—Of Intellectual Pleasures.—Of Devotion.—Of Sensibility.—Of Virtue.—The Superior Value of Christian Virtue.—The Pleasures of Virtue.—Why many virtuous*

tunes Persons enjoy not more Pleasure.—The Value of Religion in general.—Of the Christian Religion in particular.—Of Christianity, in regard of the General Advantage it has procured to Mankind, and still procures.—The high Value and Excellence of the Human Soul.—The Value of Man's Life-Time upon Earth.—The Value, or the Importance of one Year.—Of the Detriment and Danger of too frequent Dissipation and Diversions.—The Value, or the Importance, of the Doctrine of our Immortality.—The Value, or the Importance, of the Hope of a blessed Immortality, considered as the principal Source of our Satisfaction and Serenity of Mind.—Of Spiritual Experiences.

We give an extract from the sermon *On the Dignity of Man*, as a first specimen of the style and eloquence of the preacher. Having enumerated several of the high endowments of man, he thus proceeds:

'Add to this, fourthly, the capacity of continually advancing, and constantly acquiring new degrees of perfection; and you will discover a fresh ground of his pre-eminence and dignity. The sun is glorious to behold, fair is the moon, fair are the stars, beautiful the vegetables and plants that adorn the surface of our earth; each of them is good and perfect in its kind: but they remain as they are; their figure, their beauty, their motion, their operation is invariably the same. They are absolutely that which they should and can be. Not so is man. He is never absolutely what he should and can be. He is confined by no space; no time can set bounds to his action. One degree of perfection leads him on to another: never stands he so high, but he may ascend still higher. His capacities expand, his powers increase in proportion as he applies and exerts them: and the circle of his views and operations enlarges according to the degree by which his capacities unfold, and his powers improve. When has he learnt so much, that he sees nothing farther to learn? When does he know and understand all that he may understand and know? When has he proceeded so far in wisdom and virtue, that he can make no farther progress in them? When has he performed so much, and acted so beneficently about him, that he is capable of doing no more, and has no more beneficence to perform? And when do his aims and endeavours cease? Who, in all these regards, can set bounds to the human mind, which it may not hope to transcend by its dispositions and abilities, and by the will of its Maker?

'Is he not immortal? Yes; and this is the fifth source of his dignity. Man is designed for immortality. He is to continue without end, to live for ever, to live eternally as a rational, free, and active being, as a being continually endeavouring at perfection!—Immortality! everlasting life! what a prerogative, what a dignity is this! All the beauties of nature shall fade and perish; the sun and the orbs of heaven shall lose their lustre; the richest sources of light shall be exhausted; the whole visible world shall sink into night: but man survives them all, and finds in himself, in the worlds of spirits, in God the father of spirits, far more than all the visible world can give.

And

And where then are the limits that are to confine him, this immortal, this ever-acting being?'

The inference drawn from considerations of this kind deserves attention;

'Judge then more justly of mankind, judge more justly of thyself, O thou, who probably only beholdest thyself on the side of weakness and imperfection, and considerest not the superiority and the excellency of thy nature! Treat mankind, and treat thyself conformably with truth. Debase not the human race, under pretence of exalting their sovereign and father, God; and when thou speakest of the corruption and misery of man, forget not however that he is the work of the Almighty's hand, that the ignominy of the creature can never redound to the glory of the Creator.'

In the next sermon, on the opposite subject, we are thus sensibly and forcibly admonished:

'A man acts inconsistently with his high endowments of intelligence and reason; he acts in opposition to his dignity, debases and degrades himself, when he neglects to cultivate his understanding and his reason, when he neglects to use them to those purposes for which the Creator bestowed them; when truth and error, semblance and reality, are things indifferent to him, when he is contented with fewer or with worse attainments and perceptions, than such as he might acquire by his abilities, by his capacities, by his station, by the peculiar means and opportunities he has or may have to that end. —Where is then your dignity, how does your nobility appear, you who avoid that retirement and silence which is so favourable, and generally so indispensable to reflection; you who benumb your spirit by an unceasing round of dissipation, distraction, and tumultuous amusement; who seldom attain to any clear and intimate consciousness of yourselves and your condition; who seldom exercise yourselves in consideration or reflection; turn your thoughts constantly more without than within; exist more by the opinions and judgments of others, than live in that self sentiment which is the necessary concomitant of habitual meditation? Where is your dignity, how does your nobility appear, you who rest merely in what you see, and hear, and feel, who so seldom inquire into the causes and grounds and views of things; and, like the beasts of the field, are occupied in enjoying the present moments, forgetful of the past, and losing sight of the future? Where is your dignity, how does your nobility appear, you, who find it so difficult to raise yourselves above visible and earthly things, who so soon feel weary and disgusted of any serious reflection on God and religion, on duty and virtue, on death and immortality, on the vocation and the important concerns of man; to whom rational exercises of devotion, those noblest elevations of the human mind, afford so little recreation and pleasure, and who are more delighted with what affects and flatters the senses, than with any communications with the world of spirits, and with God, the father of spirits? Where is your dignity; how does the nobility of your nature appear; you, who, with the best means and opportunities of investigation and conscious reflection,

reflection, only think as others think, and talk as others talk; you who allow yourselves to be governed merely by the prejudices of education, of appearance, of fashion, who blindly embrace and revere every prevailing opinion; who are constantly whirled about in the same narrow circle of false, obscure, and extremely defective conceptions and notions; who stifle your natural curiosity; who neither seek nor acquire any better information; who remain ignorant in regard to so many important matters, and probably even applaud yourselves for your ignorance; and, therefore, in general take so little pains to cultivate your understanding, and to enlarge and rectify your knowledge? Is not this egregiously to belie your noblest privileges, to pervert or disuse them?'

Again,

'If the capacity of ever advancing, and of ever tending to greater excellence, be a fourth prerogative of man; then must every thing be in opposition to his dignity that hinders the expansion of that capacity, that checks him, that puts him back, or fatigues and dispirits him in his struggles after higher excellence. And with what numbers of people does this capacity remain nothing but capacity! How few unfold and bring their powers into action as much as they might and ought! Or, is that to stretch forwards, is that ever to improve and perfectionate our faculties, is that properly to use them, when we are so easily satisfied with what we know, what we can, and what we do; when we indeed prefer the good to the bad, but so seldom the better to the good; when we reckon ourselves sufficiently wise so soon as we in some sort understand the business of our station or calling, and have learnt to act our part with tolerable decency in social life; when we imagine ourselves virtuous and pious enough so long as we keep from open transgressions, from flagrant and shameful vice; when we do not laugh at religion, while we frequent the public worship, and maintain the character of an honest irreproachable man; while we confine our beneficence merely to almsgiving, to general courtesy and friendship, but are lothe to sacrifice any thing, or deny ourselves in the slightest instance for others, from a generous and a beneficent spirit? Is that to be called stretching forward, always striving after perfection, duly using our faculties, and thereby maintaining the glorious privileges of man, when we are afraid of being wiser and better than others, of shewing our superiority by a sounder judgment, nobler sentiments, and a purer virtue? when we will not venture to leave the common, the beaten path, will not rise above prevailing prejudices and customs, from a dread of being charged with affectation and singularity, and are contented to regulate and frame ourselves by others, and commonly by people of moderate talents and feeble hearts? Is that to be termed stretching forwards, is that to be called always striving after perfection, and properly putting our powers in action, when we suffer every obstacle we meet with in our way to perfection, every unsuccessful attempt, every trip, every loss of outward things, every sneer of the fool, every jest of the self-conceited, to scare us from the pursuit of our aim, or make us abandon our good resolves?

'No;

'No; would you likewise in this respect maintain the dignity of your nature? then allow neither your sloth nor the example of others to confine you by an arbitrary controul. Never think that you are wise and virtuous and pious enough, that you have already done good enough, and have rendered service enough to the world; regard no height of knowlege, of wisdom, of virtue and piety as absolutely unattainable; and reckon what you already know, already possess, already can do, and already have done, as the least part in comparison of what you still may hope to know, to attempt, to attain, and to perform.'

The Value of sensual Pleasures appears rather a novel subject for a sermon: but, in reality, the author's intention is only to shew that the temperate enjoyment of life is both rational and religious:

'Think not, that because I pronounce all pleasures to be really pleasures, and do not, as usual, condemn them altogether, that you are therefore to pursue every pleasure without scruple, and enjoy it at all times, and in every way at will. All pleasures are really and actually so; they produce in us all agreeable sensations. But all pleasures are not lawful; all are not harmless; all are not noble; all may not be enjoyed at all times, in all circumstances, and in the same proportion. The generality of sensual pleasures are deceitful; that is, they promise more than they perform; they but seldom come up to our expectations; they excite agreeable sensations within us, but not such agreeable, not such delightful sensations, as we perhaps concluded they would; they commonly are far less durable than we expected.—Every, even the most innocent pleasure, may change into pain, and does actually change into pain, by too frequent, too long, and too continued enjoyment; if we bring it on by compulsion, and endeavour to prolong its continuance by force, when it is not the simple exigence of nature, but an artificial requisite of our heated imagination.—Several kinds of pleasure are absolutely interdicted; as all those that are destructive to the body or to the mind; all that are injurious to our neighbour, in his health, his honour, his property, his reasonable pleasures, or in his circumstances; all that render us unfit or indisposed for the social duties and services we are bound to perform.—Others are allowable, but only as they are enjoyed at proper seasons, in due degree, and are not disqualifying or detrimental to the relish of more pure and exalted pleasures.'

How excellent is the following description of *Christian Virtue!*

'The sphere of christian virtue is far more wide, its activity greater than the sphere and activity of any other virtue. Christianity, and christianity alone, teaches us to consider all things, the small as well as the great, the seemingly insignificant as well as the more important, so much in their dependance upon God; connects all so closely with his will; unites the whole of our present life, with all its affairs, its pleasures, and its occurrences, so intimately and indissolubly with our future superior life; calls us to look so stedfastly to God and to Jesus, that, with the man who is totally animated

mated by the spirit of christianity, all is virtue,—all, even his most trifling actions, are the fruits and exertions of virtue. "Whether, therefore," as it is written, "he eateth or drinketh, or whatsoever he doth, he doth all to the glory of God." "Whatsoever he doth in word or deed, he doth all in the name of the Lord Jesus, giving thanks to God and the Father by him." To the christian nothing is in some sense indifferent, nothing unimportant: the spirit which lives and governs in him, ennobles all he thinks and does. His meditations on God, his joyfulness in him, his eager desires to please him, his prospects in futurity, give more life, more dignity, more consequence, to every thing that befalls him, and every thing he is employed in. He considers, judges, does, enjoys, and endures all things in the light of divine truth—all as a christian. Every business of his calling is to him a commission from God; every insurmountable difficulty he meets with in it, is a prohibition of God; every favourable circumstance, the assistance and the blessing of God; every pleasure, every success, a benefaction of God; every misfortune, a dispensation of God; every good, every wicked man, an instrument in the hand of God. His whole life, therefore, is one continued obedience, a constant resignation to the divine will, and a filial reverence to the good pleasure of God. His virtue, then, comprehends and embraces all things, acts in all and by all, sanctifies all, completes all, combines all with each other and with God; forsakes him in no place, at no time, in no condition; and the sphere of his activity is as large as the sphere of his thoughts, his sensations, his affairs, his pleasures, the combinations of his comforts and his afflictions!'—

'Yes, this is thy generous disposition, this thy modest and yet ardent language, thou best and surest guide of man, O christian virtue! —Blessed be thy arrival upon earth! and blessed the Lord who brought thee amongst men, and laid the foundations of thy empire in their hearts! Gentle is thy sway, and obedience to thee is liberty and peace. Thou givest strength to the weary, and power to the impotent. Thou liftest up the poor out of the mire; thou exaltest the humble and meek. Thou blessest them with the sentiment of their present and future dignity. Thou art divine wisdom to the unlearned as well as to the learned. Thou givest resolution to the irresolute; inspirest the dead with life, and the timid with the courage of heroes. The miserable is indebted to thee for his sweetest comfort, the despised good man for the inward repose of his spirit, the victim of persecution for the rewarding consciousness of his integrity and constancy, the sufferer for his silent persevering courage, and the dying man for his joyful hopes. Thou hast performed, and still daily performest, numberless noble acts, which never come to the knowledge of any mortal, which are sullied by no vain thirst of fame, which he only sees who sees in secret, and which under his inspection never cease to spread happiness and joy throughout his kingdom. Oh, that thy dominion were universal, that every christian were animated by thy warmth, and that every christian might make thee his model for becoming what he is not yet!'

Among *the Advantages of Christianity*, the following benefits are justly remarked:

'How greatly has the prevalence of idolatry been diminished in the world by christianity, and how many regions of it are freed from the tyrannical sway of superstition, and from the iron sceptre of crafty and self interested priests! And what slavish notions, what tormenting uncertainty, what fears, what terrors, what childish sentiments, what empty hopes and frivolous joys, must debase and perplex mankind, where the abominations of idolatry prevail! Calamities and horrors, from which christianity has delivered millions of human creatures, and ourselves among them; and by their abolition has prepared the way for millions of mankind, and for us among them, to liberty, to peace of mind, to firm and generous principles! That we are now no longer terrified at every unusual appearance in nature; that we no longer perceive, at every step we take, the harbingers and signs of imminent misfortune or approaching danger; that we are not continually obliged to be contriving new forms of sacrifice and new modes of expiation; that we are no longer in dread of the casual neglect or imperfect observance of numberless rites and ceremonies; that we do not take every adverse event that befalls us for the vengeance of a wrathful deity; that we do not allow ourselves implicity to be led by others, but dare to follow our own perceptions and feelings: for all these privileges and blessings, we are indebted to the abolition of idolatry, and therefore to christianity. Though many superstitions may still prevail among christians, and formerly many more may have prevailed than at present, yet we, and with us many thousands of our brethren, are freed from them by the influence of christianity, and in it lie the fruitful means for the total eradication of it from among its confessors; means which are continually coming forth into practice, and allow us to hope for still more glorious effects.'

This sermon (XVIIIth), which was preached on Christmas day, is throughout replete with liberal, sensible, and moral observations.

In discoursing on *the Value of the Human Soul*, the author's pathetic address to sensual men is worthy of himself:

'Oh, how much to be pitied are sensual and earthly-minded men, who never rise above visible things, never seriously reflect on the privileges granted them by God, on the perfection and glory to which he has called them; who are insensible to their noblest powers, or misapply them to voluptuousness, to iniquity, to sin; who are as it were all matter, and think they live for no other purpose than to satisfy their corporeal wants, to abandon themselves to sensual gratifications, or to accumulate unprofitable treasures! How can they imagine that, for this end, God has so far exalted them above the beasts of the earth, that to this end he has used so many extraordinary means for their deliverance and their salvation, or that in these pursuits they shall attain the end for which they were created! How can they boast of, what is indeed the highest boast of man, that they

are

are honoured with the image of God, and that they may be constantly drawing nearer to that glorious being, and ever gaining a closer resemblance to him! No; they belie their nobility; they debase themselves to an inferior class of beings; they defeat the great designs their maker has upon them; they prefer darkness to light, bondage to freedom, a merely sensual and animal life to one that is heavenly and divine. The exalted, the everlasting felicity of which their nature is capable, they spurn from them with contempt. Yet this is not all: they thus are preparing for themselves punishments, which will be so much the heavier as the talents are more excellent which God has committed to them, and which they abuse. This ye may do, O foolish men; ye may weaken, deprave, disgrace your soul, by folly and vice; ye may render it totally incapable of the favour of God and the bliss of the future world; ye may beguile it, and hide your shame and your misery from yourselves. But kill it you cannot. It is immortal. It will live for ever. It will awake from its illusions in another state; and then will it feel the whole weight of the shame and misery that lies upon it. Then will you experience, to your extreme affright, the truth of what the Saviour says, that it will profit a man nothing to have gained the whole world, if he lose his own soul; or what shall a man give in exchange for his soul? Lamentable prospects! dreadful expectations! Oh, strive to put your soul into a better frame, ere that great day arrive which shall decide your future lot. Raise yourselves from the earth; rend yourselves from the dominion of sordid pleasures. Avail yourselves of the gracious dispositions of God through Christ, for the deliverance of our souls. Seek of him and his doctrine that light which can enlighten you, that power which can amend and sanctify you, that grace which can console and bless you. Accustom yourselves to consider and to judge of every thing by its analogy with the futurity that awaits you, and pursue such a course as is suitable to the excellency of your nature.'

The concluding sermon of this first volume, *on Spiritual Experiences*, explains, in a more rational and philosophical manner than enthusiasts are accustomed to employ, those sensations of elevation or depression of spirits, which result from the state of health, and various outward or physical causes, acting on the fibres of the constitution.

We have now given such copious extracts from these sermons, that we must satisfy ourselves with merely enumerating the contents of the second volume, without allowing any farther quotations. It includes 26 discourses; on *The Value of Social and Public Worship*;—*of Solitude*;—*of Social Life* (two sermons);—*of a Busy Life*;—*of Commerce*;—*of a Country Life, or the Edifying Sojourn in the Coutry*;—*of Domestic Happiness*;—*of Friendship*;—*of Civil and Religious Liberty*;—*of Learning*;—*of more Enlightened Times*;—*of Afflictions and Tribulations*;—*of a Good Reputation*;—*on Conversion from a Bad Course*

of Life;—the Blessedness of Beneficence;—the Value of Human Happiness itself;—Settlement of our Notions concerning Human Happiness;—the Difference between Prosperity and Happiness;—View of the Sources of Human Happiness;—the Christian Doctrine concerning Happiness;—Arguments against Vanity;—Rules for rightly appreciating the Value of Things;—the Vanity of all Earthly Things;—on the practical Character of Jesus Christ;—on the Imitation of the Example of Jesus;—and *on the Pastoral Office.*

From the nature of several of these subjects, the reader will at once perceive that the 2d vol. promises to be as interesting as the first; and we are well convinced that, if he has any taste for writings of a moral and religious cast, he will not regret the time which he may devote to the perusal of these discourses.

There are many persons, probably, to whom the volumes will appear materially defective, as not containing what they esteem the grand requisites of good sermons,—doctrinal points investigated, and Scriptural passages interspersed and explained. In these respects, Mr. Zollikofer is certainly surpassed by many of our English divines; and though his moral instructions are built on the same foundation with theirs, he does not so often make his appeal to the immediate text on which they rest. His compositions partake, it may be said, according to the common acceptation of the words, of the nature of moral essays rather than of that of sermons, and are to be characterized as rather declamatory than argumentive: but this consideration may be an inducement with those who revolt at the name of *sermon*, or at the idea of tedious ratiocination, to examine their contents. In one word, then, we recommend them to this and to every description of readers; since, whether they may be denominated more properly moral essays or religious discourses, they have this merit that, without any profound discussion or metaphysical research, they contain the pure and undisguised morals of the Gospel, arrayed in an easy and attractive garb.

With regard to the merit of the translation, we need not say much, because it will appear from the quotations which we have made. We shall only observe, in general, that it deserves considerable praise, but that the language is not always purified from foreign idiom, nor elegantly correct in its construction.

ART.

ART. XIII. *Political Papers*, chiefly respecting the Attempt of the County of York, and other considerable Districts, commenced in 1779, and continued during several subsequent Years, to effect a Reformation of the Parliament of Great Britain: Collected by the Rev. Christopher Wyvill, Chairman of the late Committee of Association of the County of York. Vol. IV. 8vo. pp. 576. 7s. Boards. Johnson.

To the former volumes of this important and interesting collection, we paid our sincere tribute of attention and applause *. We honour and esteem its highly respectable editor, and his fellow-labourers. We consider them as the manly, disinterested, and truly noble leaders of that virtuous band which has existed in this island from the first dawn of its liberty to the present period; subject to various fate, indeed, at times having only the opportunity of bearing patiently and suffering firmly; and at other times holding the reins of government, beneficially guiding its measures and acts:—its superiority producing those glorious and happy æras which occur in the history of our country, and the days of its obscurity being days of disgrace and peril to Britain abroad, and of danger to its dearest internal privileges and distinctions. It is true that the hours of its prosperity may be reproached with some sins and errors: but we maintain that, on the whole, it has been the steady unshaken adversary of arbitrary rule, the undaunted impugner of corruption and venality; and that to this phalanx the empire owes its liberty, its prosperity, its consideration, and its power.

If, in the awful visitation which Europe has experienced in our days, any of this party deserted for a time their sound practical hereditary principles, let them not, in the moment of cool reflection, abjure the sacred cause of freedom; let us not see them take the side of despotic sway, court the post of its indications, and be forward to appear its servile drudges! There is a chill in arbitrary principles which blights the fairest produce of Britannia's isle; and when the supporters of them possess the ascendancy, she never thrives, but betrays the indications of weakness and the symptoms of decline. Let, then, ingenuous upright minds recur to the free principles of the British Constitution; the principles of Hampden, Russel, Sydney, and Locke; the principles of the Revolution; the principles on which the reigning family were brought to the throne of this empire.

To the papers which form this collection, we wish the most extensive diffusion; because they contain the true doctrines of

* See Rev. Vol. xvi. N. S. p. 268.

our free constitution, breathe the wholesome conservative spirit of liberty, and cherish a temper which ought to be inseparable from the inheritance of country and of rights.—Of the contents of the present volume, we have this account in the preface:

'It chiefly consists of the Editor's Correspondence with Persons in different parts of the Kingdom, on the subject of Political Reformation, some of whom are dead, and some are still living; many of them honourable men in private stations; many of them distinguished among the most eminent men of the age for their literary ability; and some of them Statesmen who have a just claim to the gratitude of their Country, for their exertions in the Cause of INTEGRITY and FREEDOM.'——'Errors such as rational men might fall into, faults such as sincere patriots might commit, may here be found. But the Editor relies with confidence, that Enmity itself can point out no passage in this volume which can be justly thought injurious to good morals, offensive to the Laws, or hostile to the Constitution of our Country.'

The letters embrace the correspondence between Mr. Wyvill and Mr. Pitt, Mr. Fox, Earl Fitzwilliam, the Earl of Shelburne, (now Marquis of Lansdowne,) Earl Stanhope, Mr. Dunning, Dr. John Jebb, the Earl of Surrey, (now Duke of Norfolk), Bps. Shipley and Watson, Mr. Mason, the Earl of Buchan, Sir Cecil Wray, Sir Geo. Saville, and many other distinguished characters. Parts of the account which the editor gives of himself, and of the statements by which he vindicates his conduct, must be deemed highly interesting: particularly Paper 21, in No. xxix. intitled 'The Case of the Rev. C. Wyvill, respecting the Right Hon. William Pitt,' and Paper 2. of No. xxx. 'Heads of a bill, or bills, for amending the representation;' the whole of which well deserves perusal;—and from all of which it is clearly manifest that Mr. W.'s conduct has been guided not only by a just sense of duty, but that he has given its full weight to every consideration of delicacy towards the ex-minister.

The following passage states the intercourse which has subsisted between Mr. Wyvill and Mr. Pitt:

'After the rejection of the motion by Parliament in 1785, the same personal intercourse continued for some time; till at last, in 1787, the nation had become indifferent to all questions of Reform, and the hope of success, in that temper of the public, was quite extinguished. After this period, Mr. Wyvill ceased to hold any personal intercourse with Mr. Pitt; but their political connection remained unbroken till the beginning of 1793. It had been commenced in 1780, from a similarity of political opinion; it became intimate and unreserved during Mr. Pitt's struggle to effect a Reformation of Parliament; and it ceased when his hostility to his own former measures appeared to Mr. Wyvill, in 1793, to be no longer questionable. It is true, that during this connection, much personal esteem and attachment to Mr. Pitt were mixed with the political confidence which

which Mr. Wyvill felt and professed: but in 1783, and the three subsequent years, the intercourse between them was not that of private friends, but that of a great Statesman treating with a very humble individual, the confidential Agent of a body of men, whose propositions of Reform he had resolved to adopt, and whose political support he wished to obtain: and therefore, in Mr. Wyvill's conception, communications on the public business of his constituents are not to be considered by such Agent as trusts of a private and confidential nature, but are properly to be understood as public communications, unless it were otherwise expressed at the time when such communications were made.'

The author thus relates the cause and manner of his separation from Mr. Pitt:

'Mr. Wyvill never received aught at the hands of Mr. Pitt but personal civility, with many proofs of his esteem and regard. For those civilities, and for the esteem and confidence with which Mr. Pitt was pleased to honour him, he returned gratitude and affectionate attachment, increased by high respect for his political character. In his public demeanour, and in debate with his antagonists, Mr. Pitt may be lofty and daring; but in his deportment in private society there is much ease and affability: he possesses a rich fund of benignity and good-nature; and it is not easy to approach him in the freedom of friendly intimacy, without feeling a strong predilection for him. Mr. Wyvill loved the Man, and looked up to the Minister with reverence and veneration, as a truly Patriot Statesman, devoted to combat and destroy the monstrous system of corruption, and destined to the high honour to be the political saviour of his country. In the estimation of Mr. Wyvill, his connection with Mr. Pitt was the pride and honour of his life: but in the progress of his administration, events occurred which inspired some serious suspicions of his real intention and views, and gradually lowered this lofty idea of his character. Confidence in a pure and exalted character is a pleasing sensation; it is always quitted with reluctance; and the beginning of this distrust was, to the writer, matter of deep regret and mortification. A painful struggle ensued between habitual prepossession and personal regard on the one side, and growing distrust and public duty on the other. At last, by the farther unfolding of his new system, in the course of a few years, suspicion was gradually changed into conviction, duty overcame the united powers of prepossession and personal partiality, the connection with Mr. Pitt was resigned, and the Letter of February 9, 1793, announcing this publication, was laid before the public.'

A farther extract from the same paper will be excused by our readers, because it throws light on a valuable public character:

'It will probably be said, that Mr. Wyvill is a man chagrined by disappointment in his ambitious views through Mr. Pitt; that his present conduct is dictated by the usual selfishness of politicians; that he wishes thus to recommend himself to new connections, and,

by their assistance, to pursue more successfully his favourite objects, the acquisition of professional dignity, or the renewal of family honour. He does not affect to despise the honours of his profession; he does not pretend to think that the recovery of the rank long held by those who preceded him in the possession of his patrimony would be no benefit to his family: but these acquisitions have not been the objects of his ambition.

'When he commenced his political course in Yorkshire, near seventeen years ago, some of the Gentlemen of this county, for whose public virtue and public views he feels the sincerest respect, were pleased to express their confidence in his integrity. His reply was, that he hoped their confidence would remain undiminished, as long as his situation should remain unchanged. He is not totally unexperienced in the world, or absolutely ignorant of the ways or passages, though often dark and intricate, by which promotion may be most successfully attained. When their confidence had opened to him the door of advancement, he could have availed himself of the opportunity, if to profit by his politics had been his design. His visible situation is now exactly what it was then; it is, in fact, the same situation. To this decisive circumstance he might trust the sure, though silent, confutation of the misrepresentation he has here anticipated.

'But he wishes not to leave his innocence respecting the supposed imputation to be inferred by the candour or lenity of his judges: his answer shall be direct and explicit. He asserts, therefore, and once more he trusts Mr. Pitt will confirm the assertion, that he has never asked or accepted from him any favour, great or small, either for himself or any of his friends. He might justly extend the same assertion to all the other persons in ministerial stations with whom it has been his fortune to have any intercourse or connection. The supposed charge, therefore, that his present conduct is the effect of chagrin and disappointment, must be altogether unfounded.

'Mr. Wyvill was aware, that there is in the best of men a great portion of frailty and fallibility; that the temptations to which they are exposed in public life are strong and numerous, and that the human heart is apt to be corrupted by the long possession of power. Of Mr. Pitt's integrity and wisdom his esteem was high; but he knew the extreme difficulty of the enterprise he had undertaken: he knew his virtue would be assailed by every possible temptation which the Court and the Aristocracy could employ to intimidate or seduce him from his purpose; and even Mr. Pitt's virtue might yield to their temptations. It was possible that he might shrink from the glorious task he had engaged in, and, instead of persevering in the struggle to bestow on his country the secure enjoyment of its liberty, under a Government controuled by a reformed and virtuous Representation of the People, he might turn his whole power and credit to support established abuses and corruptions. He felt, therefore, that it was possible the imperious voice of duty might call upon him to renounce his connection, and to oppose him in the prosecution of his new system of Administration. But obligation and independence are incompatible; and public duty can only be performed with unblemished

mished integrity by men who have kept their minds free and uninfluenced by favours. He, therefore, determined to preserve his freedom and independence, by never mingling with the crowd of servile and selfish men, who seek emolument or honours at the levees of a Minister: he never stooped to solicit or accept any ministerial favour: he is, and always has been, absolutely free from obligation to the present Minister, and all his predecessors in power; and the result of the freedom of judgment thus preserved is the conduct which has been here explained to the public.'

Mr. W.'s account of his associates, and his reflections on late events, appear to us too important to be passed over. Speaking in the third person, he says:

'In justice to the Yorkshire Gentlemen, he declares the conviction he always felt, that it was not their design to attack the just prerogative of the Crown. They apprehended danger, not from its lawful power, but from the exorbitant influence which it had acquired, less perhaps from craft and a premeditated scheme of aggrandisement, than from accident and unforeseen events. They respected the Nobles; they revered the Monarch; and they adored the Constitution on its genuine principles; but they despised, abhorred, and successfully resisted the Ministers of Corruption, and their profligate system.

'In the course of their exertions, in opposition to that system, they were aided by many Counties, &c. and supported by the best and wisest Statesmen of the age. After a struggle rather sharp than long, the base influence alluded to was overcome: in a moment of generous shame and remorse, a confession was obtained from the self-accusing Assembly, "That the Influence of the Crown had increased, and ought to be diminished." If this were *weakness and cowardice*, it was the weakness of returning virtue; it was the cowardice of men who feared the stings of infamy and conscience, and durst not in the face of day hazard a broad contradiction to the public opinion and their own conviction. Unfortunately this was but a transient enthusiasm; it was too virtuous to be lasting, and too fleeting to produce any essential Reform, though some correction of abuses in the expenditure was extorted by the firmness of Lord Rockingham. After his death, the Assembly soon reverted to its habitual feelings: attempts to infuse some portion of health and popular vigour into the Constitution were made by a subsequent Minister, and repeatedly rejected. In a few years after those unsuccessful efforts to restore the Representation, a new system of Terror and Undue Influence was introduced by the Minister of Reform himself; and combining it with the miseries of a most calamitous war, he nearly drove the Nation into the gulph of Revolution. Since the expulsion of the Stuarts, England had never groaned under more oppressive measures; and never did it express more exultation than at the prospect of a deliverance by the recent Peace.—But for what purpose was this complicated system of domestic crimes and miseries adopted? Doubtless, that a scheme of internal coercion might check the spirit of innovation, and guard the Constitution against the possible ex-

cesses of Reformers! And among other avowed objects of the war with France, this was the principal, and the least chimerical. Has not the experiment been tried with persevering ardour, and at a most enormous expence, till even the State-Empirics themselves were satiated! And yet, is it not certain that a large portion of the Nation are still true to the genuine principles of the Constitution; still ready to exclaim with Savile and Chatham, that Reform alone can prevent a Revolution? Have not they by whom the experiment was conducted laid waste the Constitution, and set public opinion at defiance? Have not their measures produced the Insolvency * of our National Bank, and a Taxation galling to the pride of Independence, and destructive of Family comfort? Has not the consequence been in Britain a Famine aggravated by War, and in Ireland a general Insurrection, which in its course spread desolation through the land, from the struggle of military rigour on one side, and political animosity and religious rage on the other? Who is so inhuman that he can consider these calamities, and the misery of a great part of the civilized world, without feeling the deepest regret? Or who so prejudiced, that he does not now suspect that these mighty evils might have been avoided by timely moderation, and the adoption of those prudent propositions of Reform which were offered to Parliament in 1785? From the documents in these volumes, it cannot reasonably be doubted that the Constitutional Improvements then proposed by Mr. Pitt would have contented the great Body of Reformers, and the spirit of Republican Innovation would have been extinguished in the general satisfaction of the Nation. In that case, the revolutionary storm in France could not have endangered the happiness of Britain; its rage would have been discharged on the Continent alone: our Constitution and the Peace with France would have remained unbroken. Pretences for adopting a system of War and Coercion would neither have been found nor sought. Our Rights would have been secure; our Freedom invulnerable, under the protection of a real Representative; and the Nation, conscious of its enviable felicity, would have enjoyed the sunshine of prosperity, unclouded by fears and jealousies, and undisturbed by alarms of Commotion, and the perils of an exterminating War.'

Alluding to a provincial transaction, which produced more than provincial consequences, Mr. W. observes:

'If the schism in the Committee in 1784 was a serious misfortune to the cause of Reform, the Secession from the doctrines of Reform, and the principles of Constitutional Liberty which took place in Yorkshire in 1795, is still more to be lamented. Almost infinite are the calamities which have resulted from it; and to that cause also may be imputed, in part, the dangers which still hang over this Country, and even in Peace disturb and dismay every thoughtful breast. Yet for the Seceders of this class, as for their Predecessors in 1784, it may be justly pleaded that they erred sincerely. The conduct alluded to in 1795, and the subsequent years of the war,

* Qu. Whether this strong word can be completely justified by the mere stoppage of *issues in cash*.

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was the joint effect of an honest but excessive partiality for the Minister, and an overpowering alarm, which suppressed for a time, their attachment to the genuine principles of the Constitution. But that partiality and that alarm seem to have lost much of their influence. Time and further consideration will probably free their minds from it completely; and when those impressions have disappeared, their ancient sentiments will once more arise. They will recollect with satisfaction their former support of the true doctrines of the Constitution, and again feel their bosoms glow with a spirit of prudent and rational Patriotism. And then some fresh Proposal of a Political Reform, framed on the same moderate principles which they before approved, and cautiously confined to the same regular and pacific means which they before employed, by their renewed support may happily be accomplished.'

The many persons, who feel a lively interest in the fame of the late Dr. Price, will consider themselves as greatly beholden to the worthy Editor for his able and satisfactory vindication of the political principles of that excellent person: but, in the conclusion of his note, it is said; 'In times uncommonly jealous, the misrepresentations of his eloquent, but most passionate Adversary, did succeed, and in such times only they could have succeeded to render Dr, Price an object of public distrust. His feeling mind was too much hurt by the unmerited insults of his Opponent, and the injustice of the Public, and his grey hairs were soon brought with sorrow to the grave. He died the victim of Calumny and Political Intolerance; but Posterity will do him justice.'—We are strongly inclined to believe that, in regard to what is here advanced, the Editor must have been misinformed. We have always understood that the furious attack of his adversary had no material effect on the spirits and health of Dr. Price; that he fell a victim to an excruciating disease, the seeds of which had been long collecting; and that he left the world with a mind unclouded by any apprehensions for the fate of his favourite notions respecting the progress of liberty and human amelioration. He quitted it, indeed, at a fortunate period; for the greatest horrors of the French Revolution had not yet darkened the horizon of liberty, and its issue still promised to be favourable; the friends of freedom had not yet abandoned their hopes, nor had his own appeared to have relaxed.

We shall now attend to the ultimate fate of the highly respectable Yorkshire Committee, as here recorded by their Chairman:

'In the year 1786, the Yorkshire Committee appears to have been dispirited by the loss of those respectable Members who had seceded from that body in 1784; and still more by the feeble support it had received in 1785 from the other Committees, and the consequent defeat of Mr. Pitt's Motion for a Reform in the Representation. They saw no near prospect of success; they were fatigued with fruitless exertions, and wished for repose: to dispose them to close

close their pursuit with becoming dignity, seemed all that remained to be effected.

'With this view, the intended Circular Letter was sent to the Clerk of the Committee to be printed, and communicated to the Members. But fearful of taking any step which might be misconstrued, the Chairman wished previously to consult Mr. H. Duncombe, Mr. Mason, and Mr. Burgh. Hence the Correspondence, of which a part has been laid before the reader; and hence the ultimate abandonment of the measure. From Mr. H. Duncombe an answer was received, too indecisive to afford the least encouragement to proceed: from Mr. Mason and Mr. Burgh a joint letter was received, expressing strongly their doubts of the propriety of the measure; and, in subsequent letters, those doubts were improved by discussion into a direct and strenuous opposition. In consequence of the indecision of one friend, and the warmth with which the measure was opposed by the other friends consulted, the Circular Letter was withdrawn from the Clerk, and never was transmitted to the Committee. As the hope of Reform became more and more distant and indistinct, the Members became less and less inclined to meet, till at last the prospect of success wholly vanished, and the intention of meeting again was tacitly, but generally, given up. Thus the Yorkshire Committee was suffered to die away, without a proper close being put either to its existence by a Dissolution at a County Meeting, or to its capacity to act by the Committee itself, adjourning *sine die*.'

'In the issue of this attempt to reform our representation, we see nothing that ought to discourage the friends of British liberty from future attempts, when the season shall favour them. The failure may be ascribed more to the want of a satisfactory and well digested plan of reformation, than to any other cause; and it is to this circumstance that the advocates of reform should turn their attention. Let them produce a scheme of amendment, that shall be effectual, safe, moderate, and practicable; and having accomplished this, the day of its adoption will not be very distant. With regard to all that have hitherto been proposed, we are very much of the opinion expressed in a letter from Earl Fitzwilliam to the Yorkshire Committee, where he says, 'A better Representation is not only desirable, but in a manner necessary; but of all things the most difficult to be brought about. No Plan, decently practicable, has yet been devised; and till such is ready, every public resolution upon the subject tends more to mischief than to good, because it alarms, and does not satisfy.' May our late commendable labourers in the cause of reformation be sensible, however, that, though they did not gain their immediate object, their efforts were not thrown away; for they have set an example of noble disinterested patriotism which will not be lost to their country.

We

We regret that we must now take leave of this publication. If our boundaries were less confined, there are many, very many, interesting anecdotes and observations in the volume respecting the most eminent persons, both in letters of their own composition, and in the editor's notes, which it would give us much pleasure to extract. Let this circumstance, however, confer additional weight on the wish which we have already expressed, that the work itself should be widely disseminated and carefully perused.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For FEBRUARY, 1803.

AMERICAN AFFAIRS.

Art. 14. *A short View of the Administrations in the Government of America*, under the former Presidents, the late General Washington and John Adams: and of the present Administration, under Thomas Jefferson: with cursory Observations on the present State of the Revenue, &c. &c. of the United States. By George Henderson, Esq. 8vo. pp. 71. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1802.

THE author of this tract, who resided long in America, is of opinion that the late administrations better consulted the interest of the United States than the present government of Mr. Jefferson. He also judges it not to be the part of wisdom to extol, as a model of excellence, a constitution which has had few difficulties to surmount, few attacks to resist, and in favour of which the test of experience cannot be cited.—It is not for us to give a decided opinion on the justice of the author's remarks. Those who are more connected with the United States, and better informed respecting their internal progress or declension, will peruse the present pamphlet for themselves, and form their own judgment of its merit.

NOVELS.

Art. 15. *Julietta*, or the Triumph of Mental Acquirements over Personal Defects. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1802.

We have received considerable pleasure from the perusal of this little novel. The tale is generally interesting and instructive, the language is impressive and correct, and the sentiments and reflections, though some of them will probably meet with opponents, bespeak the talents of no ordinary writer.

Julietta, excelling in every mental grace, is unhappily deformed in person, and is therefore treated with contemptuous neglect by her parents; while Clara the younger sister, though greatly inferior in character, is beloved because she is beautiful. Under these circumstances, Julietta becomes the friend, and at last the adopted daughter and heiress, of Lord Marsham, an old miser and recluse of the neighbour-

neighbourhood, whom she accidentally rescues from a watery grave. The description of his death, at a subsequent period, is given in a very pleasing and affecting manner, and it is ably designed to dispel the terrors which are usually associated with the closing scene of life.

'As they went up stairs, Julietta thought that she heard a noise in lord Marsham's room. She listened: it continued.—Terrified, she started forward: with incredible swiftness she reached the gallery, and in a moment was in his room.

'He was supported in his bed by the servants; his eyes were closed, and a cold dew hung on his forehead.

"My father!" exlaimed Julietta in a piercing tone of suppressed anguish.

"Is it you, my love?" he said, opening his eyes. "Come to me; do not be alarmed: it was a short struggle, and is now over. Mrs. Fortescue, how good this is in you! I was just preparing to send for you. Julietta, my love, I must make you blush, if, weak as I am grown, I show a braver spirit than you. Suppress your tears, my love, and do not sadden the very few hours which precede our parting."

"Parting!" cried Julietta, and her sobs and tears burst forth with violence as she flung herself in agony upon the bed. Lord Marsham endeavoured to raise her; but his strength was gone. He looked on her with an affection which moistened his cheeks with tears: but feeling all exertion too painful to him, he said lowly, "Julietta, you distress me."

'Her cries immediately ceased. She turned away her face, and with an effort which stretched every vein and muscle of her countenance, and almost burst her breast, she stopped its convulsions. She wiped away her tears, and with a tranquil, but glazed eye, she seated herself by the bed-side.

"Why," continued lord Marsham, "when I have so few hours to pass with you, should they be made disagreeable to me, and disgusting to you? A dying man's room need not be like an hospital. Take away those phials. Clear the room, and throw open the windows."

'Julietta, with a jealousy of any one else assisting, did every thing herself. She sent for flowers and fruit, of which lord Marsham was fond. She arranged his bed; and then seating herself, she passed her arm under his neck, and supported his head.

"I thank you, my child," he said with a smile. "Dismiss your apprehensions, and I shall be easy. Death, contrary to vulgar opinion, is seldom painful. I have as yet suffered little; and I feel as happy as a weak man can do. I will not affect to be gay, because I am not strong enough. But I think of dying with no feeling but a little curiosity to know what will then be."

'When the fruit came, he ate a small bit of nectarine, on the condition that Julietta and Mrs. Fortescue should each eat a whole one.

'A few minutes after, he said, "I wish I had strength to hold a pen, that I might write how easy it is to die."

'These

'These were the last words that he spoke distinctly. Utterance afterwards evidently became painful to him, and life ebbed apace. He took Mrs. Fortescue's hand and Julietta's and joined them. Mrs. Fortescue understood him, and solemnly declared that she would consider Julietta as a sister. He then looked at Julietta, and pointing upwards with his finger, whispered, "Edward."

'Julietta comprehended his meaning, and went for the portrait of Edward Mortimer. When she brought it, a lambent flame kindled in lord Marsham's eyes. He seemed to recover strength: he supported himself without Mrs. Fortescue's assistance, and drew aside the curtains. He then passed his hands across his eyes, and gazed with earnestness on the picture. He sighed, a tear fell upon his cheek: he closed the curtain, and, falling back, expired.'

We must confess, however, that this work is open to the charge of being somewhat romantic: such is the main circumstance of Julietta having succeeded in gaining the affections of Henry, who had been ardently attached to her sister Clara; while the *reserve* of the heroine, and her singular treatment of Henry after their marriage, seem to form an *excess of philosophy* which even Julietta could not have committed; and we should much doubt whether, in real life, such an experiment would have a happy termination. It is a very benevolent attempt in an author to furnish a lesson of virtuous exertion, and motives of consolation, to those who labour under personal disadvantages; and this is the object of the present volume: but we think that it would have been more likely to produce the desired effect, if the 'mental acquirements' of Julietta had been represented as more within the reach of the generality of persons in a similar situation.

Art. 16. *Martyn of Fenrose;* or the Wizard and the Sword. A Romance. By Henry Summersett. 12mo. 3 Vols. 9s. sewed. Dutton.

Mr. Summersett's fertile and lively imagination hurries him beyond the boundaries of nature into the regions of enchantment, and we become acquainted with the fleet courser which outstrips the wind, with the magic sword which mows down armies, and with the wonderful wizard of Fenrose, who may be intitled "the prince of the power of the air."—Those who can read of such marvellous faculties, without being shocked at so flagrant a violation of the known laws of nature, will find in these volumes several interesting and amusing scenes, characters well supported, and events related in a manner which displays ability and genius. We might mention in particular the description of the field of battle, the descent of the stranger and his dog Fidelity into the abyss, and the scene of William's imprisonment in the vault.

Art. 17. *The History of Netterville*, a chance Pedestrian. 12mo. 2 Vols. 6s. sewed. Crosby and Co.

We cannot speak much in praise of this performance; although the fair writer appears, from her moral reflections and *quotations from Scripture*, to be a friend to religion, and we may add, "a true lover of the holy church." All sectarists, not excepting the quakers,

are

are aliens from her affection.—We observe that this lady introduces *herself* not unfrequently; 'Methinks I hear my readers say.'—We therefore take the liberty of hinting to her, that the author should be so far in the back ground, as neither to think nor hear *in propriâ personâ*;—and now that we quote Latin, we farther remind the lady that *in terrorum* is not Latin. We must also hint that the accusative of *who* is *whom*; and that it is not usual, in the French language, to assign the feminine gender to a man:—'He was the *Protégée*.'

Art. 18. *The Strolling Player*; or Life and Adventures of William Templeton. 12mo. 3 Vols. 12s. Boards. Symonds.

Adventures which bear the semblance of real life, whether it be in the circles of polished society or in the more humble company of itinerant comedians, cannot fail to engage the attention of the reader; since we naturally feel ourselves a party concerned in whatever may befall our fellow man:—"*Nihil humanum à nobis alienum.*" On this account, we have been amused and sometimes affected with the events related in these volumes: but we must also state those defects which counterbalance our approbation. In the first place, the language is incorrect; 2dly, there are some great improbabilities in the story, especially in Caroline's venturing out to sea with strangers; and, lastly, the hero is a man of loose morals, and introduces us to others of his acquaintance who are more unprincipled than himself. We must beg leave to decline such society; and, till he becomes more exemplary in his conduct and associates, we must withhold our patronage from the 'Strolling Player.'

Art. 19. *The Heir Apparent.* By Mrs. Gunning. Revised and augmented by her Daughter, Miss Gunning. 12mo. 3 Vols. 12s. sewed. Ridgway.

The manuscript of this novel, we are told, was left unfinished by Mrs. Gunning, and was discovered by her daughter among other compositions which have not yet been presented to the world. At the request of several friends, Miss G. undertook to finish the *Heir Apparent*, and, in the character of the amiable Mrs. Doringfield, has drawn an affectionate portrait of her deceased mother.—The production, if not very interesting, is on the whole pleasing, and contains many just sentiments and reflections. The hypocritical character of Lady Ormington is well exhibited; and the catastrophe of the marriage of Desmond and Rosanna excites in the reader's mind that regret at their misfortunes, which is described to have been the portion of their surrounding friends.

Art. 20. *The Author and the Two Comedians*; or the Adopted Child. 12mo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Allen.

In a modest preface, the writer of this novel expresses his doubts whether many readers will peruse it to the conclusion. We can assure him that we have not been tired with this duty; for though, as he observes, the work has not *epic unity*, the adventures introduced are humorous and amusing, and the graver parts contain sensible and judicious reflections.

Edu-

EDUCATION.

Art. 21. *Surveys of Nature*: A Sequel to Mrs. Trimmer's Introduction; being, familiar Descriptions of some popular Subjects in Natural Philosophy: Adapted to the Capacities of Children. By Harriet Ventum, Author of Selima *, The amiable Tutoress, &c. 12mo. 2s. bound. Badcock. 1802.

This little book is written purposely for the use of children from the age of eight to twelve years, and it seems to us very well calculated to accomplish the intention proposed by it; though the language is sometimes above the comprehension of readers of such tender age. The dialogues are maintained during walks in the garden or the field, and are pleasingly diversified by the surrounding objects which present themselves. The observations on nature are such as tend to engage the attention of the young mind, and to increase its stock of knowlege; and should it happen that they may not always be exact, or may be somewhat doubtful, (such as the account of the heliotrope or sun-flower turning constantly towards the sun,) still the moral and pious remarks which arise are pertinent and impressive.

Art. 22. *Modern Conversations*, in Eighteen Dialogues upon various Subjects; by Cajetan Polidori: With a Selection of Proverbs and Proverbial Phrases; by the same Author. 12mo. 2s. Dulau and Co. 1802.

The colloquial use of Italian, as of every living language, can be acquired only by conversing with natives of the country in which it is spoken:—books and teachers may, indeed, supply helps, but practice alone can ensure confidence and facility. To such, however, as have no opportunities of intercourse with Italians, and are yet desirous of attaining some of the familiar phrases, we would recommend this collection; which is correctly printed, and savours of the genuine spirit of Italian conversation. If some of the topics are trivial, they are not, on that account, less remote from those daily interchanges of speech which pass current in society. Goldoni's numerous pieces (with the exception of his Venetian jargon) approach, perhaps, still nearer to the language of real life.

In his enumeration of works in which the open *es* and *os* are particularly marked, the present author has been careful to mention two or three which are nearly inaccessible to the good people of Old England: but he has omitted Florio's Dictionary, published in London, and Dr. Tourner's recent edition of Soane's *Novelle Morali*; We should be glad to see a complete collection of Italian proverbs, treated in the simple and satisfactory manner in which a *few* of Mr. P.'s hundred are exemplified.

Art. 23. *Practical Rules for the Italian Language*; with Exercises, and Elements of Italian Conversation. By Henry Marius Tourner, a Native of Rome, P.T. & LL.D. Member of the Roman Arcadia, &c. &c. 12mo. 4s. Dulau and Co.

Dr. Tourner here presents us with a more compressed and practical form of his *New Introduction to the Italian Language*: but his rules,

* See Rev. N. S. vol. xiv. p. 112.

we apprehend, might still bear reduction, without prejudice to the interest of his pupils. The leading grammatical facts of any language may be sketched in a short outline, while appropriate idioms easily become familiar, in consequence of frequent exercises in reading, speaking, and writing. In this latter point of view, the additional portion of this publication may be studied with advantage.

In his preface, the author very properly confutes an unfounded assertion of Peretti: but he is not, in our opinion, equally successful in his attempt to overthrow the prevalent doctrine of an intimate relationship between the Latin, French, and Spanish. We mean not to deny that the French retains a tincture of antient Celtic, which, in Spanish, is blended with Moorish phraseology: yet Latin, in its pure or its debased state, may be safely affirmed to constitute the basis of both these languages.—Again, whether Gallicisms have been allowed to creep into the Italian, or Italianisms into the French, we cannot question the existence of a very marked affinity of single terms and idiomatical phrases. A native of Rome may assert the rightful claims of his vernacular tongue to *harmony* and *energy*: but an impartial inquirer may doubt how far such claims ought to be considered as *exclusive*. The Spanish, and its sister dialect the Portugueze, may at least dispute the palm.

We hear with much pleasure that a gentleman of such active habits and respectable qualifications, as Dr. T. possesses, designs speedily to supply the want of a good Italian and English dictionary. That nothing, on our part, may be wanting to render his compilement *quite complete*, we would advise him to employ an English hand in the revision of his explanations.

For the rest, we flatter ourselves that the mixed complexion of our short strictures will skreen us from the imputation of any undue *effusion of good nature towards the author or the bookseller.*

Art. 24. *The Juvenile Plutarch:* Containing Accounts of the Lives of Children, and of the Infancy of Illustrious Men, who have been remarkable for their early Progress in Knowlege. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Half bound. R. Phillips.

We are disposed to think that the progress of children, in many parts of learning, is often retarded not so much by deficiency of capacity, as by a want of confidence in their own powers; and that parents and tutors, therefore, instead of repressing, should encourage a confidence of this nature. The author of the Juvenal Plutarch aims at this point; and several characters are introduced, which conspire to teach young persons an useful lesson of self-exertion, a manly spirit, and a love of virtue and knowlege.

Art. 25. *Take your Choice:* Or the Difference between Virtue and Vice, shewn in opposite Characters. 1 mo. 1s. Harris.

Industry and idleness, temperance and gluttony, humanity and cruelty, &c. are here contrasted with each other in short and easy tales, adapted to juvenile understandings. The mode in which the narratives are blended together in the printing may rather confuse some children, but the lesson is always good; and the cuts will contribute to attract attention.

Art.

Art. 26. *The Village Library*; for the Use of Young Persons. By Miss Gunning. 12mo. 2s. Crosby and Co.

We have some fears lest the price of this little book should place it beyond the reach of many for whose benefit it is principally designed. The language, also, is not simple enough for children:—a very common fault in these publications. In other respects, it is a commendable performance.

Art. 27. *A short View of the Natural History of the Earth*; for young Persons. By H. E. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Harris.

—And a very obscure view for children, since the terms employed in the descriptions are too *extraneous*, *terrene*, *excavated*, and *scientific* for their tender minds.

Art. 28. *Some Remarks relative to the present State of Education*, in the Society of the People called Quakers. By George Harrison. 8vo. 1s. Darton and Harvey.

The little attention, which is paid by the society of Quakers to the education of youth, appears to Mr. Harrison a proper subject of animadversion and remonstrance. In this short pamphlet, therefore, he seriously and calmly exhorts his fraternity to consider the great importance of this concern; and especially at their yearly meeting, instead of lending an ear to frivolous disputes and complaints, he admonishes them to devise a plan for the better regulation of their schools, and for the promotion of piety and good morals among all classes. We heartily wish that such benevolent views for the rising generation may be noticed as they deserve.

Art. 29. *An Epitome of Geography*, in three Parts; arranged after a new Manner, and enlivened by References to Antient and Modern History. By John Evans, M. A. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Symonds. 1802.

The plan of this little volume is designed to interest the pupil's attention, by blending amusement and instruction together; on which account, a concise mention is here made of many recent events in different parts of the world, serving at the same time to convey useful information to children, and to imprint on their memory the name and situation of the place. Part 3d in particular, which treats of England, &c. appears to us judiciously drawn up; and we think that, on the whole, this tract is well calculated to serve as an introduction to larger works of the kind.—At page 39, we observed an error of the press, leading to a very different sense from that which the author intended to convey;—'such may be,' for *may such be*.

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 30. *The Anatomy of the Brain explained in a Series of Engravings*. By Charles Bell, Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh. 4to. pp. 87, and 12 Plates. 2l. 2s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1802.

We have here a publication which reflects much credit on the author's anatomical knowlege, and on his skill as an artist. The plates

are executed in a very superior style of correctness and elegance; and, assisted by the concise and accurate descriptions to which they refer, they will have a considerable tendency to facilitate the study of the most complex viscus of the human body.—The different synonyma of authors are very properly given in notes, which also comprize some subordinate subjects of discussion, not necessarily connected with the explanation of the plates.

A few of the concluding pages of the volume are allotted to the consideration of the manner in which the ventricles of the brain communicate with each other; a subject which has given rise to much controversy and some ill will among anatomists.—The author agrees with Dr. Monro in his well known opinions on this point: but he attempts to shew that they are not new, and that the communication of the lateral ventricles with each other, and with the third ventricle, was known and admitted by many anatomists previously to Dr. M.'s time. His quotations sufficiently shew that the communication between the lateral and third ventricles, by means of the *foramen commune anterius*, or vulva, was known, and described by former anatomists: but they do not go so far as to prove that there were any decided ideas on an immediate communication between the lateral ventricles themselves, for the discovery of which Dr. Monro principally contends.

Of the existence of this communication in the healthy state of the brain, we entertain considerable doubt; and from attentive observation we are inclined to conclude that, though a very slight elevation of the anterior crus of the fornix will allow a probe to pass from one ventricle to the other, yet, in the ordinary situation of the parts, the communication between the two ventricles is only through the medium of the passage to the third.

Art. 31. *A practical Synopsis of the Materia Medica*, Vol. 2d. Part I. By the Author of Thesaurus Medicaminum. 8vo. pp. 150. 3s. 6d. sewed. Baldwin. 1802.

The first volume of this work escaped our notice at the time of its publication, four years ago; and, as it is not now before us, we must content ourselves with informing our readers that, besides treating of Alimentary Substances, it comprized the first class of the author's arrangement of the Materia Medica, *Evacuants*, which were subdivided into eight sections, viz. Errhines, Sialogogues, Expectorants, Emetics, Cathartics, Diuretics, Diaphoretics, and Emmenagogues.—The first part of the 2d volume, now published, treats of Emollients, Absorbents, Refrigerants, Antiseptics, Astringents, and Tonics; and it is soon to be followed by the second part, which will complete the work.

In his examination of the individual medicines which compose the classes now enumerated, the author gives a concise and perspicuous account of their synonyms, natural history, preparations, effects, and doses; subjoining a reference to the other parts of his work in which they are mentioned under different heads; and also to such publications as treat of them more at length, or form authority for their employment.

Art.

Art. 32. *Practical Information on the Malignant Scarlet Fever, and Sore Throat*, in which a new Mode of Treatment is freely communicated. By E. Peart, M.D. 8vo. pp. 64. 2s. 6d. Miller. 1802.

Art. 33. *Practical Information on Inflammation of the Bowels and Strangulated Rupture*, in which a new Method of treating those Disorders is faithfully communicated. By E. Peart, M.D. 8vo. pp. 38. 1s. 6d. Miller. 1802.

Art. 34. *Practical Information on St. Anthony's Fire, or Erysipelas, and on Erythematous Affections in general; as also on Measles*; in which new Modes of Practice are communicated. By E. Peart, M.D. 8vo. pp. 33. 1s. 6d. Miller. 1802.

Art. 35. *Practical Information on Rheumatism, Inflammation of the Eyes, and Disorders in general proceeding from Inflammations of a similar Nature*; in which new Modes of Treatment are communicated. By E. Peart, M.D. 8vo. pp. 38. 1s. 6d. Miller. 1802.

The author of the above tracts, being dissatisfied with many of the principles and much of the practice of the present day, has been so fortunate as to devise a mode of reasoning which he represents as having led him to very material improvements in the treatment of many dangerous diseases. He does not make us completely acquainted with his principles: but he informs us 'that he assumes as a fact, that fevers and inflammations may arise from opposite causes, and will require remedies of an opposite nature.' Pursuing this idea, he conceives 'that Scarlatina, Scarlatina maligna vel anginosa, rubeola, erythema, erysipelas, pestis, &c. &c. are examples of one kind of fever and inflammation; and that hernia strangulata, enteritis, rheumatismus, ophthalmia, pleuritis, hepatitis, phrenitis, and other similar affections, are specimens of the contrary kind.' The remedy which he employs in the first class is carbonate of ammonia, given to adults in the doses of from 6 grains to 12, every two, three, or four hours, either in water, or made into pills with aromatic confection:—those which he employs in the second are calomel and opium; which, in cases of enteritis, and strangulated hernia, he gives in the quantity of from three to five grains of the one, and from half a grain to two grains of the other, every one, two, or three hours.

We deem it unnecessary to do more than report the general plan of the author's treatment; the success of which, according to him, has been uniform and unprecedented. Out of nearly three hundred cases, in which he employed the ammonia in *scarlatina anginosa*, he lost only two; and in them, the disease seemed to him to be too far advanced, to afford any chance of his remedy being serviceable. —After the fate of numerous specifics which have, at different periods, been brought forwards for the cure of diseases, we need hardly caution our readers against placing too much confidence in any new suggestions of that kind. The opinion formed of Dr. Peart's practice will much depend on the idea entertained of his judgment, candour, and accuracy; which do not appear pre-eminent in the tracts before us.

Art. 36. *A practical Treatise on Diet*, and on the most salutary and agreeable Means of supporting Life and Health by Aliment and Regimen. Adapted to the various Circumstances of Age, Constitution, and Climate; and including the Application of modern Chemistry to the Culinary Preparation of Food. By W. Nisbet, M. D. Author of the Clinical Guide *. 8vo. pp. 434. 6s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1801.

We have in this work a pretty extensive and minute, though rather a common-place view of the nature and effects of most of the substances which are employed as food; together with observations on many other circumstances connected with the support of life and health.—The author, however, seems in many cases to have adopted opinions on the properties of different kinds of aliment, without taking into consideration any of the experiments which have been made by philosophers of modern times on the subject of digestion. This process, if we may judge from observations which sometimes occur in his work, is considered by him as intimately connected with fermentation and acidity; though it has been shewn that, in the healthy stomach, neither of these changes necessarily takes place.

Art. 37. *The English Olive Tree*, or a Treatise on the Use of Oil, and the Air Bath: With Miscellaneous Remarks on the Prevention and Cure of various Diseases, Gout, Rheumatism, Diabetes, &c. By the Rev. W. Martin Trinder, LL. B. at Oxford, and M.D. at Leyden. Second Edition, much enlarged. 8vo. pp. 96. 5s. Dwyer. 1802.

The union of the divine and the physician is strongly recommended by the author of this work, as likely, among other reasons, to raise the poor clergy from secret distress to competency; and to cut down the present rate of fees, particularly in England, so as to exclude no man from ready and judicious aid.—We shall not enter into an examination of the propriety or expediency of the clergy becoming practitioners in medicine, nor of the reasons which the author has adduced on this subject. We have no doubt that he means well in these and the other remarks which he now lays before the public: but we by no means consider him, from the present specimen of his success in the prosecution of medical inquiries, as having done much towards making the union of professions popular.

The air bath, or in other words the exposition of the naked body to the cool morning air in a bed-room, is recommended by the author as well adapted to prevent disease, by exciting a discharge of perspirable matter, and removing the tendency of the fluids to putrefaction. Friction with oil he considers as useful in recruiting strength, when exhausted by fatigue, without producing an obstruction of the exhalants. He also extols it as a valuable remedy in plague, dropsy, and many other diseases. He is of opinion that, 'if oil, poured on the troubled waves of the sea, can assuage their restlessness, so inunction over the human frame may soothe the irritability of the nerves, and restore the mind to tranquillity;' and hence he recom-

* See Rev. vol. xxxviii. N. S. p. 314.

mends

mends it 'in indirect debility, and consequent spasm in the nervous system, whether from vexation, ebriety, voluptuous excesses, or from causes inherent in the constitution.'

Art. 38. *Dissertations on White Swelling of the Joints, and the Doctrine of Inflammation.* By John Herdman, M.D. Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh. 8vo. pp. 279. 5s. Boards. Bell, Edinburgh; Johnson, London. 1802.

Though the object of the present work is to improve the treatment of white swelling of the joints, the author does not appear to speak from actual experience in this disease. He disagrees with Mr. Benjamin Bell on the propriety of dividing it into the scrophulous and rheumatic species; and he states it as his decided opinion, that it always partakes of the nature of scrophula, that it has its origin in debility, and that it is to be cured by an invigorating and stimulating plan of treatment. He disapproves of the antiphlogistic regimen, topical bleeding, purging, and cold applications; and he recommends nourishing food, the warm bath, warm fomentations, pressure with rollers, and rest. If the disease should not yield to this plan, he advises friction with the opiate liniment, or some oleaginous substance, immediately after the fomentations; and he *supposes* that, in this stage, small doses of mercury may have a good effect. He adds that it may *perhaps* be proper to employ blisters: but, from the very slight manner in which he seems to estimate this important remedy, he appears to be imperfectly acquainted with the good effects frequently experienced from their employment.

POETRY, &c.

Art. 39. *The Encyclopædia of Vocal Humour:* Being Songs of Wit and Whim; many of them original. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Thurgood. 1802.

Numerous compilations of this kind have been presented to the public, at different times; and of all of them it might be said that their contents were very various, not only in point of subject and manner, but in point of merit. To the small selection before us, nearly the same character will apply: but, on the whole, we think that there is by no means a predominance of inferiority: a number of good old songs are preserved: several of those which are original have considerable comic effect; and nothing has been admitted to transgress the bounds of propriety.

Art. 40. *An Elegy sacred to the Memory of Lady Wright,* formerly of Ray-House, Essex, but late of Bath; who, on the 6th of January in the Year of Jesus Christ 1802, quitted the dark Wilderness of this World for the happy Regions of Light, Bliss, and Immortality. By the Author of the *Celestial Companion* * (R. Woolsey). 4to. pp. 23.

A pious and affectionate tribute to the memory of a much esteemed Friend.—The use of the monosyllable *here* for *hither*, at the end

* This work is at present under our consideration.

of two of the stanzas, is inadmissible; and the following line loses its measure, if properly pronounced:

"For me, ăbsĕnt or present was designed."

Art. 41. *The Horrors of Bribery*; a penitential Epistle from Philip Hamlin, Tinman, to the Right Honourable H. Addington, Prime Minister. To which is added a Postscript; containing *sensible* Animadversions on Judge Grose's *solemn* and *serious* Address to the unfortunate Tinman. Edited by Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 1s. 6d. Dean.

P. P. in general gives us a penny-worth for our penny: but here the rogue has completely taken us in, and has sadly disappointed our features, which were all prepared for a little risible exercise. The Tinman, though he *hammers* away in the true west-country dialect, assisted by his friend *Tap*, makes duller music than we should have expected to have heard from any tin-shop in the purlieus of Parnassus.—May it repent thee, P. P., of *doing* Philip Hamlin's letter into *verse*; for thou oughtest to have been better employed, and not have buried thy genius in a tinker's budget! Thy muse seems to resent such vile drudgery, and does not recover herself till she speaks *in propriâ personâ*, which happens not till she comes to these two stanzas, with which the poem concludes:

'*Such* are the TINMAN's tuneful sighs,
That from his gloomy mansion rise,
Something like song from dying swans of old:
Then, ADDINGTON, thy rigour quit,
Nor boast the iron heart of P—;
But show that *thine* was form'd in MERCY's mould.

'Yes, let the culprit be forgiv'n—
No *actual rape* took place, thank Heav'n!
He wish'd to *buy* thine Honour's pure embraces.
I own with *awkwardness* he strove—
A country Bumpkin in his love—
A simple Cymon, 'midst the polish'd GRACES.
Then smile, and put the Bumpkin out of pain,
And send him *whistling* to his *shop* again.'

Having thus, in spite of our mortification, endeavoured to exhibit him to the best advantage, we shall be very angry if P. P. does not look gracious, and promise to make us amends for thus introducing us to his new acquaintance, the crock and kettle-mender, whose melancholy penitence quite overcomes us:

'Hear me a bit—Lord! Lord! I thort no harm
I ne'er once thort of making zich a starm.'

Art. 42. *The Lapse of Time*. A Poem, for the New Year. By Rebecca Edridge. 4to. 1s. Robson.

This lady's memory outruns her imagination, and her verses exhibit more traces of poetic reading than trains of poetic fire. She may not, however, so much wish to be a good poet as a good preacher, and may

may excuse us from the fulsome flattery of telling her that all the muses presided at her birth, if we echo a part of her serious exhortation:

——————'O then, while yet ye may,
Ye sons of sensuality and vice!
Welcome the annual change with change of life:
That as the seasons roll their vary'd round,
From year to year, ye nearer may approach
Perfection, and sense refine to spirit.
So that at last among the cherubim
Ye may be found rejoicing!'

Was the lyre ever strung more completely to the tune of an old sermon?

LAW.

Art. 43. *Essays: On the Action for Money Had and Received; on the Law of Insurances; and on the Law of Bills of Exchange and Promissory Notes.* By William David Evans, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 540. 10s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons.

In the first of these essays, which discusses a subject that has been only incidentally treated by other writers, we discover many marks of patient investigation, and nice discrimination. Mr. Evans, however, cannot accede to the doctrine laid down by Mr. Justice Buller in the case of *Lowry* v. *Bourdieu*, Dougl. 468, where his Lordship observed, "That there is a sound distinction between contracts executed and executory; and if an action is brought to rescind a contract, you must do it while the contract continues executory." Such a decision, the author conceives, cannot be sustained on any principles of general reasoning.—It must be observed that the law, as laid down by Mr. J. Buller, has been recognized by Mr. J. Heath in the subsequent case of *Tappenden* v. *Randall*, C. P. T. 41 Geo. III. 2 Bos. & Pull. 467. His Lordship says, "It seems to me that the distinction adopted by Mr. Justice Buller between contracts executory and executed, if taken with those modifications which he would necessarily have applied to it, is a sound distinction. Undoubtedly there may be cases where the contract may be of a nature too grossly immoral for the Court to enter into any discussion of it: as, where one man has paid money, by way of hire, to another to murder a third person. But where nothing of that kind occurs, I think there ought to be a *locus panitentiæ*, and that a party should not be compelled, against his will, to adhere to the contract."

The contents of the present volume are highly creditable to the talents and knowledge of the writer; and we recommend it with perfect confidence to the attention of our professional readers.—The printer has not discharged his duty with so much accuracy as the author.

Art. 44. *The Reports of Sir Edmund Saunders, Knt.*, late Lord Chief Justice of the King's Bench; of several Pleadings and Cases in that Court, in the Reign of King Charles the Second; with three Tables, 1st, of the Names of the Cases, 2dly, of the Matters

ters contained in the Pleadings, and 3dly, of the principal Matters contained in the Cases. The 3d Edition, with Notes and References to the Pleadings and Cases. By John Williams, Serjeant at Law. Royal 8vo. Vol. II. 1l. 16s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

Of the first volume of this highly improved edition, we gave an account in our 30th Vol. N. S., to which we must refer our readers, as its presents a view of the many valuable additions introduced by the present editor. These Reports have always been in high estimation, and have received a great accession to their utility by the very learned, comprehensive, and judicious notes of Serjeant Williams. Indeed, several important topics, such as Common Recoveries, *Scire Facias*, Error, Policies of Insurance, Contingent Remainders, and Executory Devises, are considered in these volumes with such accuracy, and at such length, as nearly to supersede the necessity of applying to any other works for information on those subjects.—Whether this performance will be found useful on the Circuit, according to the editor's expectation, we will not presume to determine: but we are perfectly satisfied that, in many other situations, it will greatly facilitate the labours of the professional man.

POLITICS.

Art. 45. *Ten Letters, principally upon the Subject of the late contested Election at Nottingham.* 8vo. 1s. Jordan.

We have here a correspondence between Mr. Davison and Mr. Maddock, Nottingham electors, in which the former complains of being calumniated by the latter, as "an enemy to the executive Government;" and the latter replies without either boldly maintaining or ingenuously retracting the charge. Mr. Davison is a manly, clear-headed Whig, and has defended his character and political principles with great spirit and ability.

Art. 46. *A Letter to John Bowles, Esq.* on the Subjects of his two Pamphlets lately published, and intitled, "Thoughts on the late General Election as demonstrative of the Progress of Jacobinism," And "A Letter addressed to the Honourable Charles James Fox, in Consequence of his Speech in the House of Commons, on the Character of the late most Noble Francis Duke of Bedford," &c. &c. 8vo. 4d. Jordan.

Mr. Davison here again enters the lists; and, after having vindicated his own character, he proceeds in behalf of the Nottingham Whigs to inflict public chastisement on Mr. Bowles, for misrepresenting the procession at the late election in that town, as indicating *the progress of Jacobinism* in this country. Mr. D. boldly and unequivocally contradicts Mr. B.'s assertions, and expresses surprize that he should have the audacity to publish such a string of slanderous untruths.

Art. 47. *A Letter to Robert Davison, Worsted Spinner,* by Mr. Alexander Foxcroft, Attorney at Law, Nottingham; with the Reply of the former thereto. 8vo. 6d. Jordan.

A con-

A continuation of the Nottingham Election controversy, Parchment *versus* Worsted Stocking; in which, Parchment rattles most lustily, but Worsted Stocking gives him such a hard dry rub in reply, that he shrinks vanquished from the field. Indeed, the Worsted-Stocking conceals a two-edged sword of no common keenness and temper, by which the Parchment is cut to atoms and made the sport of the winds.

Art. 48. *A Letter to the Electors of Nottingham.* By John Cartwright, Esq. 8vo. Pamphlet. 1803.

Major Cartwright's political principles are well known, and, *qualis ab incepto*, he has steadily persevered in recommending and defending them. Undauntedly he continues to maintain the necessity of a parliamentary reform; and in offering himself a candidate to the electors of Nottingham, on the occurrence of any vacancy, he exhibits to them his views of the real nature of the British Constitution, of our situation, of our wants, and of our prospects. In a strain of bold, nervous, and animated eloquence, he attacks that which is termed the borough-faction, and reprobates with indignation the despotic principle of 'Taxation without representation.' To true Whigs, including we trust *sancta cohors comitum*, many of Major Cartwright's periods will be highly relishing, while to those of an opposite cast they will be "wormwood." He considers the prevention of a parliamentary reform as having been the real object of the late war; he exposes those writers who, at its commencement, laboured to explain away the nature of our constitution, as bottomed on representation; he urges the necessity of recurring to original principles, in order to preserve our national greatness; and he concludes with observing, that it is not for an Englishman to despair of the Liberties of his Country.

Art. 49. *The State of Things in* 1803; in a Dialogue between the Old Year and the New Year. 12mo. 6d. Hatchard.

The old departing gentleman exhibits no very comfortable prospect to his successor. He complains of being 'wearied with some men's vices and other men's absurdities;' and neither in politics nor in religion can he find much to please him. He seems most to be disturbed, however, on his dying pillow, by the publication of Sunday Newspapers; which he was forced to hear cried about with as little ceremony as milk and mackerel. The Old Gentleman professes an ardent attachment to Mrs. Hannah More, but he leaves her no other legacy than his blessing.

Art. 50. *The Substance of the Speech of the Right Hon. Henry Addington*, in the Committee of Ways and Means, Dec. 10, 1802. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

The impression made by this speech was favourable to the character and talents of the minister. It offers statements which are said to be satisfactory, and holds out pleasing prospects for the future: but, by the issue of Exchequer bills to the amount of 11,000,000, it appears that the income of the State is not yet adequate to its annual expenditure.

Art.

Art. 51. *The Importance of Malta to Great Britain, as a Naval and Military Station, considered.* By George Orr, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Ginger.

The substance of this sensible pamphlet may be given in the author's own words: 'Malta is *the watch-tower* of the Mediterranean and the Levant; and compared with Gibraltar, the latter can stand no sort of competition. The possession of the former is much less expensive; and its harbours are so commodious, that the whole British navy might ride in safety in them: whereas in the latter there is no protection in its harbour even for a single ship.' According to this representation, the exchange of Gibraltar for Malta would be no impolitic measure, if that island cannot otherwise be honourably and safely retained. Gibraltar is perhaps a mere national feather: but, if we were in possession of Malta, we might command the coasts of Africa, Egypt, Syria, Sicily, Italy, and the southern coasts of France and Spain; and to surrender it into the hands of the Neapolitans is in fact to give it to France.—Mr. Orr is of opinion that it would be absurd to restore the Knights of Malta.

Art. 52. *A Letter addressed to the Citizens of London and Westminster*; suggesting Improvements in the Police; congenial with the Principles of Freedom and the Constitution. By T. Colpitts. 8vo. 1s. Jones. 1803.

Society in a vitiated state will not easily tolerate those remedies which are essential to its reformation; and if Mr. Colquhoun's accounts of the metropolis may be taken as *data*, we must despair of those general and persevering exertions in favour of virtue, which are necessary to purify the public morals. Mr. Colpitts is of opinion that the vicious would be more effectually restrained, if the present race of police officers (runners) were disbanded, and the police placed in the hands of the citizens at large; all the respectable inhabitants being obliged to take the acting part by rotation, and to extend a vigilant eye to the conduct of every individual in every district, by visiting each house as soon as inducted into office. He advises that Pawnbrokers should be required by law to deliver to the police officer of the district, once in a week, *triplicates* of every article taken in pledge by them; and he would also oblige coal dealers to carry with them, on the delivery of coals, a legal measure, properly stamped. Such hints may be worthy of attention; though Mr. C. will not be able to prevail on the inhabitants of large cities to banish immorality from them.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 53. *The Life, Adventures, and Opinions of Col. George Hanger.* Written by himself: To which is added, Advice to the Prelates and Legislators, how to correct the Immorality and Jacobinism of the present Age, and at the same Time increase the Revenue. Advice to the lovely Cyprians, and to the Fair Sex in general, how to pass their Lives in future to their better Satisfaction, and to enjoy with Discretion the three Cardinal Virtues.—On Matrimony, Compulsive Wedlock, and on Polygamy.—On the Misery

of Female Prostitutes.—The History of Ægyptia, the Pamela of Norwood, and Paragon of the Ægyptian Race; the Author's Marriage with her, and her cruel Infidelity and Elopement with a travelling Tinker;—and a History of the King's Bench Prison, written by the Author during his Custody under the Marshal of that Prison, descriptive of the Miseries endured by the Prisoners, and the extravagant Expence incident to their Confinement. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. about 400 each Vol. 16s. Boards. Debrett.

Col. Hanger certainly possesses wit: but he forgets that a man may laugh till he cries, and that then he does not wish to laugh any longer. Irony, in which he particularly indulges, may be carried too far. An antient critic, wishing to restrain writers from attempting dilated pathos, reminds them that nothing dries up sooner than a tear; and of the risible faculties it may be also said that they soon tire, and that, by an injudicious endeavour to protract pleasure, weariness and pain are excited. Never was this remark more forcibly illustrated than by Col. Hanger's Miscellany. Like the eternal *titter* which we have sometimes witnessed, when we have unfortunately been in vulgar company, his humour, so far from exhilarating us, at last subdues and makes us grave. He has seen the world, from the court to the night-cellar, and has undoubtedly powers of amusement: but why, as Mrs. Slipslop would say, will he *iron* us to death!—We discern no wit in the effigy of himself suspended on the gallows; it will not serve for a pun on his name: for he is there not the *hanger*, but the *hanged*.

The Colonel describes himself as *nudus agris*, *nudus nummis*; and well he may, after having expended for only one winter's dress-clothes the sum of nine hundred pounds. Having taken more liberties with himself than he would choose any man to take with him, he proceeds to offer his advice to *Prelates*, *Cyprians*, &c. at considerable length: but then, as children say at school, it must *all be taken the backward way*; and, not being *Crabs*, we are tired of this retrograde motion.

Art. 54. *A Letter to the Hon. Col. George Hanger*, from an Attorney at Law. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

If we became grave at the vast exuberance and incessant reiteration of Col. Hanger's dry humour, we were forced to smile at this attorney's serious and argumentative reply to what he calls an hurly-burly attack on the profession of the Law. All that he advances may be very just, and much to the purpose: but did the occasion call for a sober vindication? We should as soon have expected a letter from the Bench of Bishops to Col. Hanger,—thanking him for kindly advising the ladies to fasten their petticoats to their shoes, when they walk along the street, lest any Bishop, passing by and seeing a beautiful leg, should have his thoughts diverted from things above,—as an expostulatory one from an Attorney, complaining of his having treated the *limbs* of the law too roughly. No doubt, this laughing Democritus sometimes means to be serious, but he has so blended grave irony with grave admonition, that few probably will give themselves the trouble to separate the one from the other.

Art.

Art. 55. *An Inquiry into the Causes and Effects of Emigration from the Highlands and Western Islands of Scotland,* with Observations on the Means to be employed for preventing it. By Alexander Irvine, Minister of Ranock. 8vo. pp. 158. 3s. 6d. sewed. Longman and Rees. 1802.

Emigration, when carried to any extent, is one of those serious evils which it is much easier to deprecate than to resist by adequate remedies. When bodies of men annually quit their native country with the purpose of never returning to it, they must be actuated by foreign temptation, domestic dissatisfaction, or the combined operation of both these causes. The fact itself respecting the Highlands seems to be indisputable. 'It is said that last year upwards of five thousand people emigrated (to America), and that this year (1802) four thousand or more are about to follow.' Mr. Irvine does not mention these numbers as strictly correct: but he positively asserts that 'there are *some parts* of the Highlands where population has diminished one-fourth within these ten or twelve years, and where this depopulation is severely felt.' By the arguments here employed, the reader is led to believe that this is an evil of an alarming nature; yet, if we are to admit the statement at p. 8 and 9, the object of Mr. I. is completely nugatory; for it is there not only asserted 'that the Highlands are more populous now than they were a hundred years ago, and are still rapidly increasing,' but that 'Emigration may partly be the cause of this rapid increase.' It is added that

'No country upon the face of the earth has risen so rapidly in the scale of improvement, nor attained eminence through such difficulties. In the space of fifty years, the value of property has arisen to a pitch unexampled in the history of any mountainous country *. The price of labour has kept pace with it. Money has increased in proportion, and, comparatively speaking, affluence shines now, where formerly penury and sorrow hung their heads in darkness.'

What, then, it may be asked, is the ground of complaint? It may be 'a singular phenomenon in the history of Great Britain, (as Mr. I. remarks, p. 155.) that so many citizens should leave *the most favoured province*:' but if, on the whole, emigration operates rather as a benefit than an injury to this most favored land, how is it to be deplored? In this view of the subject, it may be wise, according to

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'* A gentleman of respectability and extensive local knowledge, of obliging manners and patriotic zeal, was good enough to furnish me with an example of this. The lands of Glencarnock, lying in the parish of Balquhidder, were bought by the Earl of Moray in 1764 at 380*l*. At Whitsunday 1801 they were set at above 800*l*. of yearly rent, and not a shilling expended by the proprietor upon improvements.

'The farm of Invernenty, in the same parish, was feued by the Duke of Athole in 1736 to Donald M'Leran at the agreed price of 300 merks Scots. It was sold at a public sale in 1794 for 3620*l*. Sterling, and not a shilling laid out upon improvement. Many such instances might be quoted. Let these suffice.'

the

the common adage, *to let well enough alone;* and not to interfere by measures of prevention, which are likely to do more harm than good. For what purpose, then, has Mr. I. been employing his pen? Is his interference prudent?—Leaving him to settle these questions with his countrymen, we shall content ourselves with briefly laying before our readers the contents of his pamphlet. It distinctly enumerates, first the causes of emigration, and next its effects. Then follow observations on the means to be employed for preventing emigration, and on the conduct of Government with respect to it; and to the whole are subjoined some miscellaneous observations.

From the details given in these pages, and the various suggestions respecting the improvements necessary to be undertaken in the Highlands, in order to fix the affections of the inhabitants to their native land, and to prevent their migration, we see nothing to confirm the description which the author gives of the Highlands as a *most favoured province.* That district is certainly capable of amelioration, and it concerns the Government and the land-proprietors to direct their attention to this object: but it is extremely impolitic to employ coercion, or even to use dissuasives. Make the Highlander as comfortable as circumstances will admit, and let his habitual enjoyments operate to bind him to his native mountains: but if they fail to produce the desired effect, restrain him not, lest he should regard his home as his prison. Empires flourish not by such means.

Art. 56. *A Picture of Monmouthshire,* or an Abridgement of Mr. Coxe's Historical Tour in Monmouthshire. By a Lady. Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

This abridgement of Mr. Coxe's Tour (see Rev. Vol. xxxvii. N.S. p. 113.) is dedicated by the *Lady Epitomist* to that gentleman, and published with his permission. It owed its origin, we are informed in the advertisement, to a few minutes or notes made for a friend, who was about to travel into Monmouthshire; and proving of great service to him, it was thought that it might be generally acceptable to the tourist in this part of the country. The undertaking is executed with taste as well as brevity: but a map of Monmouthshire ought to have been subjoined.

Art. 57. *An Introduction to the Knowlege of rare and valuable Editions of the Greek and Roman Classics:* Being, in part, a tabulated Arrangement from Dr. Harwood's View, &c. With Notes from Maittaire, De Bure, Dictionnaire Bibliographique, and References to antient and modern Catalogues. By T. F. Dibdin, A. B. 8vo. pp. 75. 3s. 6d. Boards. Payne, &c. 1802.

A very useful catalogue for the direction of the classical student in the choice of editions; and the more valuable, because the work of Dr. Harwood, on which it is partly formed, is now become exceedingly scarce, and is moreover not altogether correct. The notes form a principal part of this publication, and contain much information on the subject of editions.

If this work should be favorably received, the author intends that it shall be succeeded by another on a larger scale. The public are much indebted to Mr. Dibdin for the troublesome office which

he has undertaken; and we hope that they will both profit by his labours and promote his future success.

CORRESPONDENCE.

A letter from Mr. Gifford, politely acknowleging himself indebted to our remarks on his translation of Juvenal, (see the last Review,) reminds us of two or three slips of the pen which occurred in transcribing some passages from that work.—In p. 16. of the article, the following line,

'Spasm, sudden death, and age without a will;'

is quoted without inserting the word *age*, by which omission it appears deficient in quantity. Our objection to it, however, was derived from its want of rhithm, which still remains.—In p. 12. line 2. *black* should be *bleak*; and near the bottom of that page, *dwindled* should be *dwindling*.

Mr. Mason, author of the Supplement to Johnson's Dictionary, (see Review for October last,) has addressed a letter to us, in which he maintains the propriety of swelling that work by adding to it every word which 'he knew to be in Spenser.' We cannot be of this opinion.—Dr. Johnson, by excluding that writer from his collection of English poets, has given a decided proof that *he* considered Spenser as obsolete.

The word *wiry*, which we pointed out as omitted in the Supplement, Mr. M. says is inserted twice, viz. under *Aerie* and *Eyry*: but it would most generally be sought under the former orthography, and therefore, as in our case, would not be found. *Surf*, he rightly alleges, is in its place: we know not how we overlooked it. *Donkey*, he informs us, was omitted as belonging to *east* dialect: but we doubt this decision. *Gerkin* he considered as a corruption of *Gorkem*, which is inserted: but this also may be questioned.

We have been "moved and seduced by the instigation of *the Devil*," the primeval tempter of mankind, to violate the resolution which we have formed, and of which we lately gave notice, respecting *new impressions* of books: but we are determined to shew that we can resist "*Satan and all his works.*"—*Sat. sap. verb.*

We find our suspicion to be well founded, that the matter again recommended to us by MM. Jafozi and Vahotsav is not an object of our attention.

*** In the APPENDIX to Vol. XXXIX. of the M. R. which was published with our last Number, p. 522. l. 23. for 'auriating,' r. *anointing*; and in the INDEX, article *Pyramid*, after 'in it,' add, 532. *MS. said to be found in it*, &c. Art. *Tiger*, after 'Ganges,' add, 481.

☞ In the Rev. for January, p. 12. l. 2. for 'black,' r. *bleak*; and l. 4. fr. bott. for 'dwindled,' r. *dwindling*. P. 16. l. 28. after 'and,' insert *age*. P. 104. l. 9. transpose the word *only*, and place it after, '*add.*' P. 105. l. 15. for 'works,' r. *productions*.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For MARCH, 1803.

Art. I. *The History of Bath.* By the Rev. Richard Warner. Large 4to. pp. 525. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons.

We have formerly had, and shall soon again have, occasion to make our acknowlegements to Mr. Warner *, for the amusement and information which, in his character of tourist, he has imparted to us: but we now meet him in a new department, and that confessedly a very difficult one. Here an author finds that his materials relative to the periods which most awaken curiosity are very scanty, and blended with fable; as he advances, indeed, they multiply, and become more authentic, but not till they almost cease to interest, and lose their title to a place in the historic page. It is to be considered also, that readers of works of this sort are of various descriptions, all of whom it is impossible to please; some look for elaborate antiquarian researches, while others expect a complete account of modern transactions and circumstances; general readers blame the author for having been too diffuse; and those who are connected with particular places censure him for omissions.—The usual judgment and address of Mr. Warner do not forsake him amid these dilemmas. If it be praise not to have strikingly failed, where none have completely succeeded, that praise is his just due. We wish, indeed, that he had omitted the fable of Bladud, and all of what he calls the British history of Bath; (or, at least, that he had stated these matters with the utmost conciseness, in a preface or a note;) we expected farther illustrations of the Roman period from his diligence and ingenuity; and we found, in that part of his narrative, more of conjecture mixed with history than we deem allowable. It must be admitted, however, that the suppositions are highly probable; that the circumstances which shew the great importance of the place in the time of the Romans are

* See Rev. vols. xxvi. xxxi., and xxxiv. N. S. Some additional vols. of tours, also, are now on our table.

boldly and happily presented to view; that the events which occasioned its decline have been industriously traced; that they are luminously stated; and that all the information which history imparts respecting the character of this city, from the Roman æra to the present time, is to be collected from the facts brought together in this volume,—facts which not only elucidate the immediate subject of the writer, but which speak the complexion of the several periods, and mark the progress of society. We may add that, if a great number of Mr. W.'s pages recite matters which have only local interest, still we have to thank him that the proportion of these is less considerable than in most other similar publications. To the visitors of Bath, for whose use the work, probably, was chiefly designed, it will prove an useful and satisfactory companion.

While we applaud the effusions of a manly independent spirit, and those of honest zeal for our constitutional liberties, in the narratives of the author's excursions, we have no hesitation in stating our opinion that the laudable feelings natural to such a person are to be restrained when he holds the historian's pen: in that case, not only lasting fame but genuine integrity call on him to communicate the fruits of his researches, free from any tincture of his own sentiments and prejudices; and to let facts, as far as it can be done, speak for themselves. In the historic page, we should discover the historian only as the consummate master; and it should not reveal whether he be a tory or a whig, a high or a low churchman, an Athanasian or a latitudinarian, a scholastic theologian or a scriptural divine. We cannot be supposed to refer to statements which connect with events their clear legitimate consequences, but to the colouring derived from the particular views of a writer, and imparted to the transactions recorded, whether remote or recent.

It is observed by Mr. W. as a comment on a well known passage of Tacitus, that,

"With respect to Britain, the Romans were more indebted for the long duration of their dominion there, to the arts of their policy, than to the prowess of their legions. This observation applies particularly to the part of England which engages our attention at present. A splendid city, raised by the Romans, adorned with all the elegancies of architecture, supplied with all the means of luxury, opened its gates to the artless Britons of Somersetshire and Gloucestershire, who readily fell into the snare, flocked to its delights, and sacrificed the pride of independence, and the blessings of liberty, at the altars of pleasure and sensuality. That this was really the case, and that Bath (under its various Roman names) contributed greatly to enervate the natives of this part of Britain, may be fairly concluded from their quiet and peaceable state for upwards of four centuries

turies; for, with the exception of a transient insurrection of the *Hedui* in the joint reign of Aurelius Antoninus and Lucius Verus, they seem to have slumbered under the heavy yoke of Roman domination, during the whole period, in tame inaction and uncomplaining servitude.'

This idea is by no means destitute of probability; and the latter part of the observation applies to what follows:

'During the period of Claudius's command we may look for the origin of Bath, since it appears from many testimonies, that his troops were for some part of the time in this neighbourhood. Whilst they continued here, it was hardly possible that so singular a phænomenon as the hot springs of this valley should escape their observation. Extremely curious with respect to natural appearances, the bituminous cuticle covering the surface of the morass, and the warmth of the waters stagnating under this mantle, would catch their attention. An immediate investigation of the causes of these phænomena would take place, and the mineral springs, which had hitherto burst unnoticed from the ground, and wasted their medicinal virtues on the desart around, would be at length discovered, cleared, and collected together.

'Addicted as the Romans were to the use of the tepid bath, this discovery must have been considered by them as a very important one, and would immediately tempt them to form a permanent station on the spot where it occurred. This they would probably be further instigated to by Scribonius, the physician of Claudius, and his companion in this expedition, who seems to have entertained an high opinion of the efficacy of warm-bathing, and prescribed it as a specifick in certain disorders. His advice induced them to forego their usual principles in the choice of situations for camps, and (instead of choosing any of the surrounding hills) to build a town in the moisty hollow of a close vale.

'As the stay of Claudius in these parts was very short, he would merely have time to give directions for cleansing and collecting the springs, and securing the treasure by the erection of a city on the spot where they issued from the earth. His imposition of the Greek name (in which language he was skilled) Θερμὰ ὕδατα, warm waters, in allusion to the natural wonders of the place, before he left the army to return to Rome, would follow of course.

'Admitting the above suppositions to be probable, we arrive at the origin of Bath, and may fix the building of the first town on the spot about the year of our Lord 44, exactly seventeen hundred and fifty-five years ago.'—

'In the year 78, Julius Agricola, the accomplished General of Domitian, succeeded Julius Frontinus in the command of the Roman forces in Britain. Shortly after his arrival, Arviragus, the prince of the Silures, rebelled against the Romans, and called the attention of Agricola towards Wales. A large part of the forces taken with him in this expedition were probably drafted from the different stations lying along the banks of the Severn and Avon, a country contiguous to the scene of insurrection; and Bath contributed her quota

of legionaries on the occasion. It was on the return of Agricola from this successful campaign, that he put in practice that refined policy described by Tacitus in a passage quoted before—softening the minds of the Britons, and fashioning them for bondage, by giving them a taste for Roman luxury, sensuality, and refinement.

'Time has spared some fragments of masonry, which may be considered as vestiges of the munificence of Agricola towards the city of Bath, during his stay in this part of Britain. They consist of the remains of a temple dedicated to Minerva. This supposition will be countenanced, if not confirmed, when we recollect that the goddess of wisdom was the favourite deity of the emperor Domitian; that he worshipped her with peculiar assiduity, and, as Suetonius observes, cultivated her good graces with childish superstition. Now erecting a temple in honour of a deity particularly reverenced by the reigning emperor, in the different cities of the provinces they governed, was a compliment frequently paid by those entrusted with a command. Agricola, a wise and sagacious man, who blended the politician with the soldier, deeply versed in the knowledge of the human heart, and well acquainted with the weakness of human nature, thought there could not be a better mode of offering a delicate sacrifice to the vanity of Domitian, than by building a magnificent fane to the goddess whom (in the madness of his conceit) he wished to be considered as his mother; thus paying at the same time a tribute of honour to the deity, and of respect to her son and devotee. In the city of Bath, too, such a compliment would be peculiarly happy and appropriate; as the goddess, to whom the temple was erected, had long been considered in heathen mythology as one of the deities presiding over waters.'

Speaking of the wars between the Saxons and Britons, the author remarks:

'During the greater part of this gloomy, agitated, and sanguinary period, Bath appears to have enjoyed a state of comparative repose. Situated at a considerable distance from the great scene of action, the southern and eastern coast of Britain, the sword of the invader did not, for many years, extend its devastations to the northern shores of Somersetshire, or disturb the quiet of the towns upon the Severn. Continual reinforcements from the continent, however, enabled the Saxons to gain successive advantages over the Britons, and gradually to enlarge the limits of their acquisitions, till their forces penetrated into the interior of Somersetshire. This happened about the year of our Lord 493, when, for the first time since their arrival, the Saxon hordes threatened the town of Bath; and under the command of Ælla, and his three sons Cymenus, Pleting, and Cissa, encamped on Lansdown, and formally besieged the city. At this period the spirits of the Britons were somewhat revived, by the extraordinary talents and invincible courage of Arthur, the most renowned of all our British worthies, who appears, even through the clouds of fable which involve his atchievements, to have been a great and accomplished hero. Apprised of the operations of Ælla, the British leader hastened after him, and reaching his camp before he

had been able to take the city, he attacked and defeated him in one of the most terrible battles that had yet been fought between the Britons and their foes.

'But this was not the only obligation for which Bath stood indebted to the invincible Arthur; since he saved it once more from the yoke of Saxon bondage. This event occurred in the year of our Lord 520, when Colgrine, Cheldrike, and Bladulfe, commanders under the Saxon leader Cerdic, marched a powerful army into the vicinity of Bath, and again closely besieged it. But nothing could elude the vigilance and activity of Arthur; he was quickly with the enemy, attacked them on the scene of his former victory and with similar success, killing two of the leaders, and destroying with his own hand four hundred and forty Saxons. (Qu?)

'These defeats, which were attended with an incredible effusion of blood, from the personal animosity of the contending parties, appear to have weakened the south Saxons considerably, and prevented them from renewing their operations against Bath for upwards of fifty years. But the period when it was to receive a foreign yoke at length arrived. In the year 577, the Saxon chieftains Ceaulin and Cuthwin (the former of whom was king of Wessex) led their armies towards the north-east of Somersetshire, and advanced to Dyrham, a village about eight miles from Bath. Here they found an enemy ready to receive them—the three kings Commail, Candidan, and Farinmail, who had assembled their forces to protect the cities which were yet unsubdued in this part of Britain. But the Saxon auspices prevailed; the three monarchs fell in battle, and their royal residences, Gloucester, Cirencester, and Bath, were numbered amongst Ceaulin's conquests.

'Bath now changed both its name and inhabitants. The classical appellation of *Aquæ Solis* was converted into the more appropriate, perhaps, but less elegant, one of *Hat Bathun*, (hot-baths;) whilst its citizens, either slaughtered, or driven into exile, left their residences to the ferocious followers of Ceaulin, who took possession of the place, and made it an appendage to the kingdom of Wessex. It is not difficult to imagine the devastation that would be committed on the architectural ornaments of this city, originally raised by Roman labour, and afterwards decorated by Roman taste, when fallen into the hands of a fierce unlettered people, who contemned the elegancies of refinement, and despised the efforts of the arts. Its fanes and temples were destroyed, its altars overturned, and the ruins of its splendid masonry were incorporated with the walls, and made to strengthen the bulwarks of the city against any future attempts of its former possessors.'

We were not a little surprized by the perusal of the passage succeeding that which we have quoted; where the author states the worship of Bath, at the time of its Saxon conquest, to have been wholly pagan, a mixture of Roman and Druidical rites, and that it first received Christianity under the Saxons! This is an instance of negligence for which we know not how

to account. History is altogether silent respecting any heathen worship in Britain at this period; and if it did anywhere exist, we may presume that it was banished, as in other parts of the Roman empire, to villages and sequestered places.

Athelstan is mentioned as one of the Saxon princes who made Bath his residence; while, we are told,

'The splendid reign of Edgar, a prince of equal energy and profligacy, canonized by the churchmen of the tenth century, but meriting rather the hatred than the veneration of posterity, by his acts of violence and inhumanity, shed a peculiar lustre on the city of Bath, since it was here that he received the crown from the hands of archbishop Dunstan, in the year 973. Edgar had already been in possession of the regal power for several years before the ceremony of his consecration and anointing took place; a delay that arose chiefly with the monarch himself, who, in consequence of some sacrilegious offences, was condemned by his friend Dunstan to the severe punishment of omitting to wear his crown for the space of seven years! No sooner was the term of penance expired, than Edgar hastened to the city of Bath, and there, surrounded by a numerous croud of priests, monks, and nobles, celebrated the ceremony on Whitsunday, with the utmost pomp, magnificence, and festivity. The inhabitants of Bath long retained a thankful remembrance of the privileges which he conferred upon their town, and the grants he made to their abbey on this auspicious occasion. Leland, who travelled thither in the early part of the sixteenth century, tells us, that, in testimony of their gratitude for Edgar's munificence, "they pray in all their ceremonies for his soule, and at Whitsonday tide, at the whych time men say that Eadgar ther was crownid, ther is a king elected at Bath every yere of the tounes men in the joyful remembraunce of king Edgar, and the privileges gyven to the toun by him. This king is festid, and his adherentes, by the richest man of the toune." What the privileges were which Edgar thus conferred, we can only conjecture; they might be exceptions from some of those tolls and imposts collected by the Hejepa, or Grieve, in every Saxon borough, both on buyers and sellers, a diminution of its fines and amercements, and an extension of its local franchises.'

After having suffered greatly from the wars of the Danes, and from the conquest, Bath was completely destroyed in the reign of Rufus. The passage subjoined gives an account of a new founder, who rebuilt it, and raised it to consequence by making it an episcopal see:

'In this lamentable condition Bath continued till the year 1090, when the munificence of a foreign ecclesiastick restored it to its former consideration. From the time of the Confessor, Normans and Frenchmen had been encouraged to settle in different parts of the kingdom, a practice which had increased to a pernicious extent under William the Conqueror, who held out a variety of advantages to such of his former subjects as would quit their native country, and follow

follow their fortunes in England. Some of these adventurers, it seems, had settled at Bath; and amongst the rest, one John de Villula, a native of Tours in the province of Orleannois in France. This man, though nothing more than an empirick, had found means to accumulate a large fortune by practising physic, and imposing upon the ignorance and credulity of the invalids who flocked to the healing waters of this city in search of ease and health. To preserve the treasures which he had thus acquired was his next object, and aware that the profession of the church offered the best security for temporal possessions in these days, equally remarkable for the violence of rapine and the spirit of superstition, he became an ecclesiastick, and by the proper application of part of his money, shortly afterwards obtained the see of Wells. Discontented, however, with a situation that tied him to residence in a town which for many reasons he disliked, and looking still with grateful partiality towards Bath, the scene of his former experiments and success, he determined to remove the pontifical seat from Wells to that place; to unite the bishoprick of the former with the abbey of the latter; to rebuild the city, and on the ruins of the dilapidated monastery to erect a similar establishment of greater extent and superior splendour. To effect this design, nothing but the consent of the crown was requisite, which at that period might easily be obtained by a pecuniary bribe, proportionate to the magnitude of the favour solicited. The needy Rufus could not resist a tempting offer of five hundred marks, and John de Villula received a grant from him of the whole city of Bath, the church and abbey of St. Peter, the mint, the baths, rights, customs, tolls, &c. thereunto appertaining, in pure and perpetual alms, for the augmentation of the see of Somersetshire. John, having thus obtained his wish, proceeded to the execution of the splendid plan which he had long had in contemplation; he rebuilt the monastery and church from their foundation, and restored the houses of the citizens which had been burnt or overturned; becoming thus, as it were, the second founder of Bath, and raising a new city out of the ashes of the old one.'

We are afterward told that Bath remained in the possession of its bishops till the year 1193; when Savaric, who at that time filled the see, transferred it to Richard the First. Mr. W. also observes, 'it gives us, indeed, but a poor idea of its state in the fourteenth century, particularly if brought into comparison with the payments of a neighbouring city, which it is now making hasty strides to rival in population; since Bath was assessed upon this grant only 13l. 6s. 8d. whereas Bristol made a return of 220l.—just *seventeen times as much*;' and 'in the year 1377, the 51st of Edward the Third, the city of Bath contained only 570 lay inhabitants; the archdeaconry of Bath, 201 ecclesiasticks, beneficed and non-beneficed; and the city of Bristol, 6345 laicks.'

General readers will be highly amused with the extracts from Domesday Book, which state the possessions of Bath Abbey.

If we do not hear of any obligations which literature owes to the Monks of this Abbey, our author tells us that

'They form just at this period a notable exception to that general character of indolence and inutility which so deservedly attaches to most of their brethren of the cowl. As if aware of the eternal truth, that no life can be pleasing to GOD which is not beneficial to man, they blended the cultivation of the necessary arts with the regular observance of devotional exercises. The shuttle and loom employed their attention, and under their active auspices the weaving of woollen cloth (which made its first appearance in England about the year 1330, and received the sanction of an act of parliament in 1337,) was introduced, established, and brought to such perfection at Bath, as rendered this city one of the most considerable in the west of England for this manufacture. A shuttle, the emblem of the art, was incorporated into the arms of the monastery, and existed till within this half-century on the front of the abbey-house, as an index of the laudable activity of the Bath monks.'

At the dissolution, the annual value of the monastery was found to be 617l. 2s. 3d.—Subsequently to this period, we learn,

'The abbey-house at Bath continued for some time unnoticed, and was falling fast into decay, when Fulk Morley repaired and rendered it habitable. The large gardens and orchard belonging to it had been granted to the prior and monks by bishop Robert in the twelfth century, and confirmed to them by Edward I. in the eighth year of his reign, and comprised all the land within the walls of the city to the north-east, the east, and the south-east of the cathedral, and a large tract of land without the walls on the west, stretching in length from Ludgate to the monks' mill, and in breadth from the walls to the bank of the Avon. These also were put into order, and furnished for many years afterwards an agreeable promenade to the inhabitants of the city. The old house, however, being very extensive, many parts of it (such as obscure offices, rooms, and lofts,) were left in their original state, uninhabited and neglected. On taking down some of these buildings in the beginning of the present century, one of the apartments, which had been walled up and never explored, displayed a very curious exhibition. It appeared to have been the sacristy or vestry-room belonging to the monastery, and was furnished with a variety of clerical garments, such as copes, albs, chesiples, &c. which hung on pegs, and lined the walls. None of them, unfortunately, could be preserved, for, as soon as the external air came in contact with them, they crumbled into dust. The whole of the abbey-house was demolished in 1755, and the foundations removed, in order to make excavations for other buildings: on this occasion, several stone coffins were dug up; and, what may be considered as a still more curious discovery, the magnificent Roman baths, which had been concealed for above a thousand years, presented themselves to the view. The baths now occupied by Mr. Sloper were built on the spot, and are supplied by the same spring that anciently fed the Roman *thermæ*.'

The

The ecclesiastical history of this city presents few names of any great note. Wolsey held the see *in commendam* with many others; it was afterward for a short time filled by Laud; and more recently by Kenn, one of the seven bishops who immortalized themselves by their opposition to James II.

The earliest returns of representatives to parliament from the city of Bath go as far back as the twenty-sixth year of Edward I.

For an account of the constitution of the corporation, its authority, privileges, and possessions, we refer to the work itself; only observing that it is oligarchical, and that it seems to be tainted with all the vices of that form of government. Numerous instances of peculation and fraud practised by it, on funds set apart for charitable and literary purposes, and on property which the freemen had a right to share with it, are here recorded.

In the author's account of the abbey church, he informs us that

'There is a tradition, that King James the Second, passing through the church, and casting his eye on Waller's obnoxious effigy, instantly drew his sword, and with an air of wanton despite hacked off the poor knight's nose, in which mutilated state his face still continues, in testimony of that act of heroism.

'An instance of James's bigotry, as well as this anecdote of his impotent malice, displayed in the Abbey church, during his stay at Bath, is preserved to us by tradition. Shortly after his accession to the crown, he visited this city, and amongst his attendants brought down the famous father Huddlestone, his confessor and friend. The friar, by James's order, went to the Abbey church, and exhibited on the altar the mummery of the Romish ritual; closing the farce with a heavy denunciation of wrath against the hereticks, and an exhortation to an immediate change from the errors of protestantism to the true faith, from which this country had apostatized. In the number of his auditors was Kenn bishop of Bath and Wells, who had ever been a firm friend of the reformed church, and a defender of its rights. Fired with indignation at this ill-judged display of blind zeal, the prelate, as soon as Huddlestone concluded his discourse, mounted a stone pulpit, which then stood in the body of the church, and desiring the congregation (who were retiring) to remain, he pronounced *extempore* a discourse in answer to Huddlestone; exposing his fallacies, and displaying the errors of his church, and the absurdity of its doctrines, in a strain of such impressive eloquence as astonished and delighted his congregation, and completely confounded Huddlestone and the royal bigot.'

Mr. Warner justly observes that,

'When we look back upon the manners of our ancestors, we frequently see a grossness both in sentiment and practice, that shocks the

the feelings of the present day, when refinement has introduced juster notions of propriety and stricter habits of decorum. That reserve which now subsists between the sexes, and adds a zest to their intercourse, was entirely unknown to the old English, and custom sanctioned a variety of indelicacies that are now regarded with just surprize. Amongst others, it was a practice, till the middle of the fifteenth century, for men and women to mingle indiscriminately in the hot waters of Bath, in a perfect state of nature. Bishop Beckyngton was the first who endeavoured to break through this indecent custom; and on the 29th of August 1449, he issued a mandate forbidding the sexes to bathe together without being covered with a proper clothing. But inveterate habits are not easily eradicated. The bishop's inhibition was frequently disregarded, and several instances occurred, till the end of the sixteenth century, wherein it was necessary for the corporation to interfere either to punish or prevent this gross indelicacy.'

It is a remarkable fact that 'the celebrity which the baths of this city once enjoyed entirely had faded away by the middle of the sixteenth century, owing to the confusion occasioned by the change of property which had taken place in consequence of the dissolution of its monastery:' but, early in the seventeenth century, 'Bath filled during the season with the affluent and noble, who, washing off their maladies in its healing waters, adorned the baths with various ornaments and conveniencies, in grateful testimony of the benefits they had experienced.'

We had always understood that Bath owed much of its present splendour to the worthy and amiable founder of Prior Park; and therefore we were disappointed in finding no notice taken of him in this volume: though Mr. W. has availed himself of former biographies to do justice to another well-known benefactor of Bath, Mr. Nash, usually called *Beau Nash.*

Chapters are devoted to the *amusements* of Bath, its *mineral waters*, and to the *mineralogy* and *botany* of its environs. Under the two former, the gay and the invalid visitant of this celebrated city will find much interesting information; and for the two latter, the scientific traveller will be indebted to the industrious author.

As we have not examined the curious reliques which are so differently explained by Mr. Warner and Governor Pownall, we abstain from comments on their jarring hypotheses; expressing only our surprize at the mythological heresy, which contends that Minerva was ever represented with a beard.

A copious *Appendix* contains antient records and various documents; and the work is ornamented by several views, plans, &c.

Art.

Art. II. *Essay on Irish Bulls.* By Richard Lovell Edgeworth, and Maria Edgeworth. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Johnson. 1802.

The object of this essay is more than amiable, it is patriotic; and the pleasantry which enlivens it is, in our apprehension, peculiarly acceptable from its having been prompted by genuine goodness of heart. From the title, our readers might probably have conjectured that the Irish were here to be introduced on the stage, like Samson, only "to make sport for the Philistines:" but a perusal of the volume will convince them that the authors, so far from cherishing any design of this nature, have skilfully endeavoured to abate the force of that ridicule which has been pointed against their countrymen, and to do justice to their talents and virtues.—In order to promote those beneficial effects which are expected from the Union between the two countries, we must banish absurd and narrow prejudices, and extend alike to every part of the empire the means of intellectual and moral amelioration. Since the Irish have suffered as well from neglect as from misrepresentation, no time should be lost in endeavouring, by a liberal and generous policy, to improve their national character, and to afford them an opportunity of self-vindication.

The object of the lady and gentleman, who have here volunteered the defence of the Irish nation against the charge of a singular propensity to that species of blunder termed a *Bull* is to take off the point of the accusation, by adducing many instances to prove that *Bulls* are common to all people, and to be found in all languages. We are consequently presented with Bulls of English as well as of Irish growth; and if the multitude of the latter surpasses those of the former, it is maintained that this difference is not to be attributed to a peculiar habit of misconception, and to incongruous association of ideas, among the Irish people, but to the figurative nature of their own language and their ignorance of ours.

It is impossible not to be amused by the lively and humorous manner in which this subject is played-with, we will not say discussed: but we cannot compliment the authors on the complete success of their wit. We were concerned for them, indeed, to find that they should themselves so far degrade it as to suppose that it required explanation. What would they have said to *Swift's Advice to Servants*, had he added a concluding chapter, informing the reader that the preceding directions were merely ironical, and not to be literally interpreted? The drift of this essay is sufficiently obvious; and its effect is considerably diminished by the solemn gravity of this assurance at the conclusion:

'Notwith-

'Notwithstanding our affected sarcasms, we explicitly declare our opinion, that the Irish are an ingenious generous people; that the bulls and blunders, of which they are accused, are often imputable to their neighbours, or that they are justifiable by ancient precedents, or that they are produced by their habits of using figurative and witty language. By what their good humour is produced we know not; but that it exists, we are certain. In Ireland, the countenance and heart expand at the approach of wit and humour; the poorest labourer forgets his poverty and toil in the pleasure of enjoying a joke. Amongst all classes of the people, provided no malice is obviously meant, none is apprehended.'

The etymology of the term *Bull* is left undecided: but it is remarked, as a curious coincidence, that the name of that species of blunder which is supposed to be peculiar to the Irish, and to characterize their conversation in an eminent degree, is exactly the same as the distinguishing appellation of the English nation. A more important matter, however, than the derivation of the term, is the definition of the thing itself.—From some examples here cited, the authors seem to consider an *extravagant conceit*, an *hyperbole*, and a *bull*, as synonymous, which we cannot admit.

> "A painted *vest* prince Vortigern had on,
> Which from a *naked* Pict his grandsire won;"

Here we have a genuine bull: but the following couplet,

> "He roar'd so loud, and look'd so wond'rous grim,
> *His very shadow durst not follow him,*"

though absurdly hyperbolical, contains no bull.—When a wise commentator observes that Moses's two *tables of stone* were made of *shittim wood*, we recognize a bull; not so, however, when the citizen calls the *crowing* of a cock *neighing*.

The essence of a bull consists in a strange laughable confusion and incongruity both of thought and expression. When the Jews asked our Saviour, "Did this man sin, or his parents, that he was *born* blind?" they were guilty of this species of blunder; and so were the Irish, when they asserted that their tutelary saint "St. Patrick swam across the Liffey with his head between his teeth." Mr. and Miss E. contend, however, that these incongruities of ideas and expressions are not more common to the Irish than to the people of any other country; and in the long Bath coach dialogue between an Englishman, a Scotchman, and an Irishman, this matter is debated: but the story, with which it concludes, tends directly to subvert the leading position of the essay, and to affix on the Irish nation a characteristic propensity to this species of blundering. The Irish incognito commits several verbal and practical bulls, which form

form a singular finale to this volume, considering that its design is to prevent our making that nation, as far as blunders are concerned, the scape-goat of all others.

Several amusing and some pathetic stories occur in this work, in the course of illustration. The following appears to be a faithful picture of Irish manners, among the poor, as well as affording an example of bulls:

"Plase your honour," says a man, whose head is bound up with a garter, in token and commemoration of his having been at a fair the preceding night—"Plase your honour, it's what I am striving since six o'clock and before, this morning, becàase I'd sooner trouble your honour's honour than any man in all Ireland, on account of your character, and having lived under your family, me and mine, twinty years, aye, say forty again to the back o'that, in the old gentleman's time, as I well remember before I was *born*; that same time I heard tell of your own honour's riding a little horse in green with your gun before you, a grousing over our town-lands, which was the mill and abbey of Ballynagobogg, though 'tis now set away from me (owing to them that belied my father) to Christy Salmon, becàase he's an orange-man—or his wife—though he was once (let him deny it who can), *to my certain knowledge*, behind the haystack in Tullygore, *sworn in* a United man by Captain Alick, who was hanged——Pace to the dead any how!——Well, not to be talking too much of that now, only for this Christy Salmon, I should be still living under your honour."

"Very likely; but what has all this to do with the present business? If you have any complaint to make against Christy Salmon, make it—if not, let me go to dinner."

"Oh, it would be too bad to be keeping your honour from your dinner, but I'll make your honour sinsible immadiately. It is not of Christy Salmon at all at all I'm talking. May be your honour is not sinsible yet who I am—I am Paddy M'Doole, of the Curragh, and I've been a flax-dresser and dealer since I parted your honour's land, and was last night at the fair of Clonaghhilty, where I went just in a quiet way thinking of nothing at all, as any man might, and had my little yarn along with me, my wife's and the girl's year's spinning, and all just hoping to bring them back a few honest shillings as they disarved—none better!—Well, plase your honour, my beast lost a shoe, which brought me late to the fair, but not so late but what it was as throng as ever; you could have walked over the heads of the men, women, and childer, a foot and a horseback, all buying and selling, so I to be sure thought no harm of doing the like, so I makes the best bargain I could of the little hanks for my wife and the girl, and the man I sold them to was just weighing them, the crane and I standing forenent him—success to myself! said I, looking at the shillings I was putting into my waistcoat pocket for my poor family, when up comes the inspector, whom I did not know, I'll take my oath, from Adam, nor couldn't know, becàase he was the deputy inspector, and had been but just made, of which I was ignorant, by this book and all the books that ever were shut

and

and opened—but no matter for that; he seizes my hanks out of the scales, that I had just sold, saying they were unlawful and forfeit, because by his watch it was past four o'clock, which I denied to be possible, plase your honour, because not one, nor two, nor three, but all the town and country were selling the same as myself in broad day, only when the deputy came up they stopped, which I could not, by rason I did not know him.—"Sir," says I (very civil), "If I had known you it would have been another case, but any how I hope no jantleman will be making it a crime to a poor man to sell his little matter of yarn for his wife and childer after two o'clock, when he did not know it was contrary to law at all at all.

"I gave you notice that it was contrary to law at the fair of Edgerstown," said he.—'I axe your pardon, sir,' said I, 'it was my brother, for I was by.'—With that he calls me liar, and what not, and takes a grip * of me and I a grip of my flax, and he had a shilala † and I had none, so he gave it me over the head, I crying 'murder! murder!' the while, and clinging to the scales to save me, and they set a swinging and I with them, plase your honour, till the bame comes down a'top o'the back o'my head, and *kilt* me as your honour sees."

"I see that you are alive still, I think."

"It's not his fault if I am, plase you honour, for he left me for dead, and I am as good as dead still: if it be plasing to your honour to examine my head, you'll be sinsible I'm telling nothing but the truth. Your honour never *seen* a man kilt as I was and am—all which I am ready (when convenient) to swear before your honour ‡."

'The reiterated assurances which this hero gives us of his being killed, and the composure with which he offers to swear to his own assassination and decease, appear rather surprising and ludicrous to those, who are not aware, that *kilt* is here used in a metaphorical sense, and that it has not the full force of our word killed.'

Sometimes a grave (ironical) attempt is made to prove that it was impossible to laugh at that which has often excited laughter. Take a specimen from *Joe Miller*, with the comment:

"Two Irishmen having travelled on foot from Chester to Barnet, were confoundedly tired and fatigued by their journey; and the more so when they were told, that they had still about ten miles to go—'By my shoul and St. Patrick,' cries one of them, 'it is but five miles a piece.'

'Here, notwithstanding the promise of a jest held forth by the words,—"By my shoul and St. Patrick," we are ultimately cheated of our hopes. To the ignorant, indeed, the word of promise is kept to the mind as well as to the ear; but others perceive that, instead

'* A gripe, or fast hold.'

'† An oak stick, supposed to be cut from the famous wood of Shilala.'

'‡ This is nearly verbatim from a late Irish complainant.'

of

of a bull, they have only a piece of sentimental arithmetic, founded upon the elegant theorem, that friendship doubles all our pleasures, and divides all our pains.'

It is also contended that, if incongruity of ideas be evinced in the discourse of the Irish, they display much ready wit, metaphor, and eloquence. 'Ask an Irish *gossoon* (garçon, boy) to go *early* in the morning on an errand, he will not coldly say, as an Englishman in a civil humour might, "Yes, master, I will be up by times," but he will answer poetically,

"I'll be off at the flight of night."

The following story is told as an instance of acuteness and ready wit:

'When General V——— was quartered in a small town in Ireland, he and his lady were regularly besieged, whenever they got into their carriage, by an old beggarwoman, who kept her post at the door, assailing them daily with fresh importunities and fresh tales of distress. At last the lady's charity, and the General's patience, were nearly exhausted, but their petitioner's wit was still in its pristine vigour. One morning, at the accustomed hour, when the lady was getting into her carriage, the old woman began—"Agh! my lady; success to your ladyship, and success to your honour's honour, this morning, of all days in the year; for sure didn't I dream last night, that her ladyship gave me a pound of ta, and that your honour gave me a pound of tobacco?"

"But, my good woman," said the General, "do not you know, that dreams always go by the rule of contrary?"

"Do they so, plase your honour," rejoined the old woman. "Then it must be your honour that will give me the ta, and her ladyship that will give me the tobacco."

'The General being of Sterne's opinion, that a bon mot is always worth something, even more than a pinch of snuff, gave the ingenious dreamer the value of her dream.'

That the genius of the Irish has not secured them from bull-making, they themselves are aware; and, being a good-humoured people, they are ready to laugh at their own blunders: yet it may be asserted (to shew the adroitness of reviewers in this kind of manufacture) that *true Irish bulls* will be often made *in England*, since absurd misapprehension is not the exclusive property of either island.

Art. III. *A Harmony of the Epistles of the Holy Apostles*; to which is added, A Summary of the Entire. By the Rev. Peter Roberts, M. A. 4to. pp. 558. 16s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

We have been somewhat perplexed in determining on the proper method of presenting an account of this volume to the public. It was our intention to insert the chief part of the

the author's preface, that he might thus speak for himself: but we found that this would lead us into a degree of prolixity which our pages would not well admit. We content ourselves, therefore, with what may be considered, perhaps, as a slighter and more general view, though to us it will prove more laborious.

In its present application, the meaning of the word *Harmony* is somewhat different from that in which it is used concerning the four Gospels. Respecting *them*, it is well known to signify an attempt to reconcile the diversity, or apparent inconsistencies, respecting time and order, which may present themselves in the historic narrations: but in this sense it is not to be considered when applied to letters sent to different Christian societies; their chronology, as to the time in which each was written, is tolerably well settled; and as to the succession of events, they occasion but little difficulty. Mr. Roberts tells us, nevertheless, that 'a harmony of the latter was first suggested to him by reading the *Harmony of the four Gospels* by the late Primate of Ireland.' No doubt, however, he perceives the dissimilitude in the two subjects, though no such specification appears. His aim is to shew the consistency of these writings in point of sentiment and opinion; or, in his own words, 'to dispose the ideas of the Apostles in their own language so as to form a system;' intending by system, we conclude, such as may be supposed to have a divine authority. We do not see reason, on the whole, to pronounce that the author inclines to establish a particular mode of faith, any farther than it is authorized, as he thinks, by the Scriptures; he rather wishes, we apprehend, to deduce all fairly from them; though it has sometimes occurred to us that he might incline to the party which Dr. Horne and some others espoused. 'On disputed points (he says) I have endeavoured to present together whatever has been urged on both sides, save where they make distinct subjects, as the divinity and humanity of our Saviour, and there each is as fully *collated* as possible by itself.'

Mr. Roberts persuades himself that he pursues a new method: but, however it may differ in point of form, attempts somewhat similar have not unfrequently been made; not confined indeed to the Epistles, but comprehending the New Testament, or more largely the Scriptures in general. We may mention *Gastrell's Institutes*, with other books of that kind, and particularly Paley's *Horæ Paulinæ* *. *They*, indeed, may seem to come prepared with a scheme and method according to which the texts should be classed; and so far, pos-

* See Rev. N. S. vol. iv. p. 376.

sibly,

sibly, this author's manner may excell, as bringing together in one view the very words employed, that thence each reader may form deductions and conclusions for himself. Some of them may be disposed to ask, Are these writers at variance one with the other? Or does the same writer contradict in one letter that which he has asserted in another? *This* the attentive and candid inquirer will hardly be disposed to apprehend. However, with the design which we have mentioned, our present author selects, or, as he terms it, collates some texts, principally from the Romans and Hebrews, not neglecting the other epistles, and places them in his *first* column; and in the *second*, he presents all the other passages which answer to them, or treat on the same subject. This portion of the volume, forming more than half of its pages, has the four divisions of prefatory, doctrinal, practical, and *conclusive*; which last consists of miscellaneous observations, salutations, &c. Here also we find those brief hints which may convey some, though an imperfect idea of the travels of the writers; and in the margin is added what Mr. R. conceives to be the date of the year intended. This first part is styled a *collation*, employing the term in a sense different from that in which it is commonly applied concerning manuscripts, versions, and their various readings. The marginal notes, here properly inserted, he tells us, form 'an addition, which would assist to carry on the subject, and make the dependence of part on part, and the connection of the *entire* more perceptible, and be at the same time of use to guide the eye to the several heads. They form a kind of skeleton of the *entire*, which may be easily comprehended.'

We next find a '*Summary* of the doctrine of the epistles compiled from the preceding *harmony*,' or collection, in which the whole of what is written on the different subjects is placed together in the words of the writers, according to our English translation: but with some variations, which are distinguished by italics. We might produce instances, from which it would appear that they are pertinent and useful.—'I thought myself at liberty (Mr. R. observes) to change the expression, wherever the *original* (meaning, though surely improper, our common English version) is obsolete or obscure: it is a liberty I have taken but sparingly, and have endeavoured to preserve the idiom of the vulgar translation, which has an elegant simplicity and a peculiar ease and harmony of expression, that, even with its few faults, has never been equalled.'—In what he farther says on this subject, however just in a degree, there is some danger: this method of reasoning from attachment to old forms and words may prove too much, and might, as it

has been, be employed against any just and desirable reformation and improvement.

The next and last division includes *The Notes*, which occupy many pages, and constitute, in our estimation, the best and most valuable part of the volume; since it is here that Mr. Roberts appears to us principally to discover learning, acuteness, and ability. Of these *notes*, some are extended to a considerable length; as particularly on texts relative to the doctrine of the Trinity, which the author sedulously maintains. He criticizes disputable passages in the epistle to the Philippians, but 'believes the famous text, 1 John, v. 7. of no authority, and has therefore printed it in italics.' The *note* on prescience, predestination, necessity, &c. is also among those of some extent. Mr. R. appears to consider the subject with attention, and offers just remarks; inclining, we conceive, to the freedom of human choice and action. Some little judgment may be formed from the translation (rather paraphrastical) of "Rom. viii. 29. *For those whom God foreknew that they would love him*, he also did predestinate to be conformed to the image of his Son, &c." Others of these notes sometimes contain, besides criticisms and explications, useful practical observations and reflections; which manifest the writer's desire to contribute to real improvement.

We now proceed to lay before our readers some passages from Mr. Roberts's notes, from which they may form their own judgment. We do not present the criticisms as being always new: but, when they are not so, they may serve to confirm and illustrate what has been already offered to notice. Locke, Benson, and Taylor, appear often among the commentators to whom this writer seems to allot a principal regard, although he does not always concur in their opinion.

'2 Pet. i. 3. Διὰ δόξης καὶ ἀρετῆς. *To* glory and virtue. The sense here necessarily requires not *to*, but *by* glory and virtue; that is by the glorification of Christ and his power to save. Dr. Benson, for the word virtue, substitutes *might*; but there is no need of the change; for *virtue* is used as here interpreted in * Luke, viii. 46. "For I perceive that *virtue* is gone out of me." It is even a better expression, as it signifies not only power, but a beneficent application of it.'

'2 Pet. i. 4. Θείας κοινωνοὶ φύσεως. *Partakers of the divine nature*; or, partakers of *a* divine nature; that is of a glorious immortality, the great attribute of divinity.'

* It may be remarked that the word in Luke is δύναμιν, not ἀρετην, but this diminishes nothing from the propriety or strength of the writer's argument.

'2 Cor.

'2 Cor. xii 1. Τρίτου ἐρανὸν. *The third heaven.* Qu'est ce qu'un troisième ciel? (Voltaire, Dict. Phil.) *What is a third heaven?* Ans. It is a very simple expression for the residence of the Supreme Being; the first heaven being that of the clouds, and the second of the heavenly bodies.—When Voltaire made this objection, he did, as is usual with him when speaking of Scripture, make a seeming absurdity, and pass over a real excellence, and strong argument of St. Paul's veracity;—I mean the manner in which he speaks of that heaven to which he was raised. No ideas he had before the vision, were sufficiently like those he received in it. The heaven of Mahomet, of the Heathens, is made up of human ideas, of worldly enjoyment, that at once betray their origin; and had St. Paul no proofs of a revelation by miracles, he would have found his converts very little satisfied with his description of heaven, though it is the only one which will bear a strict examination. Voltaire has also overlooked the very great delicacy with which the apostle speaks of himself in the third person.'

'Heb. ix. 1. Κοσμικόν. Not worldly, as it is translated in the English; but richly adorned, as a representation or type of the glories of the sanctuary in the heavens. This interpretation gives what follows the natural connection with this verse.—The difficulties the commentators, who, I believe, unanimously support the other sense, are put to, may justify my translating the word in its most natural signification.'

'Heb. ix. 25—28. The church of Rome declares, that the sacrifice of the Mass is a propitiatory sacrifice. "Docet sancta synodus sacrificium illud verè propitiatorium esse;" Conc. Trid. Sess. 22. c. 2. which contradicts directly the whole of St. Paul's argument. The apostle says, that the very circumstance, in which the oblation of Christ differed from the sacrifices of the Jews, was, that the latter were offered repeatedly, the former was *once* only, and *once for all.*'

'Heb. xii. 18. Ψηλαφωμένῳ. *The mountain that might be touched.* This word should most indubitably be written ἀψηλαφωμένῳ, that might *not* be touched, for in Exod. xix. 12. we find that the mountain was not to be touched on pain of death, and as the other parts of the description answer precisely to that of mount Sinai, it is evident this ought, which by the slight change I have made, does so perfectly.'—

Some persons have pleaded for inserting οὐ before the word; perhaps the above alteration is better and more probable.

'Rom. x. 9. The belief in Christ's resurrection is here said to be a title to salvation: Why?—Because it is the belief of a future state by the proof in his own person; and a belief, which, when truly such, refers our conduct to that state, and makes it the object and end of our actions. It is a belief of the reward of good and punishment of bad actions according to his gospel; and which, becoming a principle in our hearts, determines us to rectitude, and herein is its superior value.'

In answer to the question, Rom. vii. 24. *Who shall deliver me*, &c. Mr. Roberts renders the beginning of the next verse,

The grace of God by Jesus Christ: 'I read here, (he says,) with Mr. Locke, Ἡ χάρις τοῦ Θεοῦ, which is the only expression that will give a meaning, and is supported by several MSS.:'—but Mr. Locke and our author seem not to correspond perfectly in their Greek; as the former reads τῷ Θεῷ, the latter τοῦ Θεοῦ.

'Rom. viii. 19. Τῆς κτίσεως. (Of the creature.) What this creature implies seems to have puzzled the commentators a good deal; Locke thinks it comprehends the whole world, and the Gentile world especially; and Taylor labours to prove, that no part of the creation *but mankind* could be comprehended in it. St. Paul, however, had probably no idea of specifying any particular rank of beings. He has just before told us, that the *sufferings of our present state* are not to be put in competition with the glory of the future, and then very naturally observes, that our earnest expectation in this *state of mortality*, in which we exist in consequence of our creation, looks forward to the revelation in our renewed *state of redemption*. For though our mortality is subject to the vain and transitory state of this life, yet our *will*, our *wishes*, as Christians, are no farther attached to it, than in obedience to our God, who has, by placing us in it, commanded us to endure our trials in hope of redemption, when this creature shall be freed; that is, as the apostle says, 1 Cor. xv. 54. when this mortal shall put on immortality.'

'Heb. iii. 12—19. These verses I consider, with Erasmus, to be an application of the preceding quotation to the Christians, and a characteristic one of St. Paul, who spiritualizes many parts of the Old Testament, as being typical and so far prophetic; the Red Sea and the cloud, the rock in the wilderness, and many passages in the psalms and prophets, which were originally very differently intended. It is, however, dangerous to carry the idea any farther than it is plainly specified in Scripture to be so; though as allusions and illustrations, they may with a restrained imagination be of use.'—

'1 John, ii. 10. Ἐν αὐτῷ. Dr. Benson refers these words to φωτὶ, (the light,) I believe very rightly, and I have therefore done the same, though not exactly in his own words.—"He who loveth his brother abideth in the light, and *in it* there is no occasion of stumbling."

'Rom. xii. 20. Dr. Benson's idea is ingenious and justified by the next verse, viz. "That the phrase of *heaping coals of fire on his head*, is taken from the melting of metals in a crucible; for when they melt gold or silver in that manner, they do not only put fire under and round all the sides, but also heap coals of fire on the head of the crucible to melt the metal. In allusion to this, Christians are to heap coals of fire (acts of kindness and benefits) on the head of an enemy, and so melt down his obstinacy, bring him to temper, and overcome his evil by their good. This is noble, glorious, reasonable, and truly Christian;"—and it is overcoming evil with good: and thus I find it applied by the learned and pious author of an excellent popular tract in the Welsh language, (published originally about the year 1676,) intitled, *A history of the Christian religion*, and a proof of *its verity and efficacy*, by Charles Edwards. The passage runs thus: "When the Lord seeth his enemy hungry, he feedeth him; when he

he seeth him thirsty, he giveth him drink. But though the burning coals are heaped on their heads, they do not melt their hearts to love their purifier."

The explication of the above text is pretty generally known, but the note is rather curious.

'James, iv. 5, 6. These verses have embarrassed the commentators much as to the quotations and the meaning. Dr. Benson thinks there cannot be found in the Old Testament, the words, πρὸς φθόνον ἐπιποθεῖ τὸ πνεῦμα ὁ κατῴκησεν ἐν ἡμῖν. In this I cannot agree with him; to me they are a translation of Gen. viii. 21. only altered to agree with the speaker *.'

'James, v. 12. The many instances I have adduced in the parallels to this text, sufficiently prove, that the meaning of it is to prohibit swearing in conversation, and by no means extends to a prohibition of an appeal to the Father of truth, as witness of the truth, and a punisher for the violation of it, for which St. Paul appeals so frequently. The grounds of the prohibition are evidently (in Matth. v. 34, &c.) the danger of offending God by perjury, or bringing a punishment on our own head which we cannot avert. *Swear neither by the throne, the footstool, nor the city of God.* Why? Because, if lightly, or unnecessarily, it is profanation. *Nor by thine own head.* Why? Because thou canst not change the colour of an hair, much less then prevent or remedy a disorder, which a false assertion has drawn down upon it. How great then the danger of such a punishment, in the giddy use of swearing in conversation, to which the Jews were evidently very subject! The Quakers have, to their honour here and hereafter, proved that swearing is not absolutely necessary; and how dangerous it is, our Saviour has declared, which, therefore, though by his own example, and that of the apostles, permitted in solemn ratifications of truth, we certainly have no other plea or excuse for, but *a very solemn and important occasion.*'

'1 Cor. xv. 29. Ὑπὲρ τῶν νεκρῶν. (For the dead.) On account of the dead. This is generally interpreted, on account of the resurrection from the dead. St. Paul's argument, ver. 17th, is, If Christ be not raised, then is your faith vain; after which to this verse, he inserts a description of the manner and consequence of the rising again of the dead, and here seems to me to recur to his argument; which will be this. They, who deny a resurrection, deny that Christ is risen; and if Christ is not risen, he is still dead; and they who are baptized in his name, are baptized in the name of the dead, and not of the living. Why then are they so absurd as to be baptized in the name of a dead man; why do we, for the sake of a dead man, endanger ourselves?'—'The word νεκροὶ is used several times, in this very chapter, to signify *the state of the dead*, or the dead in general. Nothing is more common with St. Paul than to speak of the singular in the plural.'—

* The author adds remarks on the Hebrew and the Greek, and a paraphrase, all which we must omit.

To the above, we shall add only one farther quotation; though rather out of its place:

'Col. ii. 20, 21. Μὴ ἅψῃ. (Touch not, &c.) These words are the δόγματα, the *ordinances* alluded to in the preceding verse, and should be connected *to* it by understanding the word λέγοντες, *saying*, or some such word. They are the expressions of the Mosaic law, "*Touch not* the unclean, *taste not*, *handle not*," all referring to the meats and drinks, which had been the subject of the 16th verse, and which were much insisted on by the Jews and judaizing teachers, as observations of a peculiarly meritorious nature. Nor were these peculiar to them. The merits of abstinence and rigorous fasting are, almost universally, held to be great throughout the east, and so is that of regard or dislike of particular meats; and they have been so from very early times. The Egyptians, in the time of Jacob, detested the Hebrews, because they were shepherds. The idea of a mystery excites admiration; and self-denial excites respect; where both were joined, the ignorant multitude were led, and when habit had once given a particular cast to their ideas, it was not easy to bring them back. All the powers and skill of Mahomet could not prevent the Arabs from paying a superstitious visit to Mecca, and, therefore, he politically changed the object. Nor can the morality of the Gentoos prevent them from relying more on their ceremonies, than their morals. The fact is we are fond of any thing that looks like a compensation for errors, and loath to give up the errors themselves. We all feel our miseries and our imperfections; and hence the day, the place, and uncommon or disagreeable object, an idle surmise or apprehension, and not the error in judgment, are accused for our ills; we have little confidence in ourselves, and we are therefore anxious to throw our burden on any altar that offers, and to destroy the remembrance with the sacrifice. No wonder then that the Jews should wish to keep up ordinances, which, in their opinion, were accepted instead of righteousness.'

We do not always readily and fully concur with this commentator in his remarks and conclusions: but, in this respect, the reader is as liable to mistake as the writer. It appears very clearly that he is a man of application and learning; and we consider him also as a man of liberality and candour. With regard to the order and form into which this work is thrown, it may prove a convenience and advantage to attentive readers to find parallel passages brought together: but whether it does not create some perplexity and confusion, or may not occasion difficulty in ascertaining the true sense of a particular sentence, thus detached from its immediate connection, are questions which naturally occur; and we will not, in such respects, undertake to appreciate the value of the performance. In a note, p. 494, Mr. Roberts, speaking of his having changed the order of St. Paul's epistle to the Romans, adds concerning the different parts thus connected, 'I hope I have put them in a clearer

clearer light by so doing, and that the liberty I have taken will be compensated by utility.'—We can have no doubt that it will be found advantageous in different respects to consult the work; and probably, on a more close inspection, the reader may derive benefit, greater than he at first apprehends.

The volume is published from the press of the University; and Mr. Roberts fails not to return his thanks to the Syndicate and others, for the honour and favour which he has received, and without which he must have despaired of its appearance in the world.

ART. IV. *Elements of Natural History;* being an Introduction to the Systema Naturæ of Linnæus: Comprising the Characters of the whole Genera, and most remarkable Species; particularly of all those that are Natives of Britain, with the principal Circumstances of their History and Manners. Likewise an Alphabetical Arrangement, with Definitions of Technical Terms. In Two Volumes; with Twelve Explanatory Copper-plates. Vol. I. containing the first Four Classes, viz. *Mammalia, Birds, Amphibia, Fishes.* Vol. II. containing the fifth and sixth Classes, viz. *Insects* and *Vermes.* 8vo. 18s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1801 and 1802.

IF the ample exposition of this title-page recounted the truth, *and nothing but the truth,* we should congratulate the English public on the appearance of an important guide to the study of Natural History: or, if the compiler had professed at once his more limited design, we should, without previous comment, proceed to the examination of its merits. As zoology, however, forms only one branch of the subject announced, we cannot pass in silence the fallacious latitude assumed in the title of this publication. We admit that every purchaser of a book must take his chance of a good or a bad bargain, according to his opportunities of ascertaining the talents and diligence of the author: but we must assert, that he has substantial claims to the consideration of all matters which are *proposed* to be considered.

The present writer, indeed, offers something like an apology, in the advertisement prefixed to his *second* volume:

'This work,' he says, 'being now completed, the editor must apologize for not having intitled it *Elements of the Natural History of the Animal Kingdom.* He originally intended to have included Botany and Mineralogy in his plan; but the English reader has already so many excellent helps to the study of the former branch, that every other attempt on that subject is manifestly superfluous. With regard to the mineralogical system of Linnæus, he says himself that he did not boast of it; and mineralogy in the present day has assumed

a new aspect; it is therefore judged proper to renounce, for the present at least, any introduction to that science, till some system shall appear which may be generally adopted.'

We really cannot form such a low estimate of the apologist's good sense and observation, as to suppose that, when he commenced the execution of his scheme, he was unconscious of the circumstances here stated. As the title, too, is usually the last part of a publication which issues from the press, we are at a loss to conceive why its terms were not adjusted to the range of discussion. It is not enough to allege that the precise amount of the contents is specified near the bottom of the first page: since many persons might be induced to order the first volume, which appeared long before the second, on the faith that the subsequent volumes would deduce the series. Independently of this consideration, the work, as it now stands, exhibits the incongruity of a large promise and a partial performance.

Viewing, however, the editor's labours on the reduced scale of an *Introduction to the study of animated nature*, we find abundant reason for applauding the propriety of his plan, and the diligence and accuracy displayed in the execution. He avowedly selects and distributes his materials according to the method followed in most of the German manuals, or elementary treatises on the various departments of science; and a few pages are previously allotted to a general statement of the prominent features of distinction observable among the several classes of natural productions, and of the divisions and arrangements to which they have given rise. Towards the conclusion of this first sketch, we meet with the following very considerate directions:

'If we would attain a fundamental and useful knowledge of natural bodies, we must, 1. Study the most approved systems; make ourselves acquainted with the terms of art; and examine the characters of the classes, orders, genera, and species. 2. We must collect and learn to distinguish, and to ascertain systematically such natural bodies as we may meet with; we must likewise employ ourselves in making observations on their origin, properties, manner of life, growth, and propagation. 3. We ought to peruse collections of natural bodies with diligence and attention. 4. We should if possible visit the native places of such bodies. 5. We should make ourselves acquainted with the literary history of this science, and read the best authors with diligence: especially such as treat of the natural history of our own country. And, lastly, we should endeavour to turn the discoveries of natural history to the advantage of human society.'

Then follows a very respectable catalogue of books which treat of Natural History in general.

The common properties of organized bodies constitute the subject of the first chapter. The second contains a very abridged view of the anatomy and physiology of animals, a list of some of the principal works which treat of this department, and a notice of the Linnéan divisions and classes. Separate chapters are next, successively, devoted to the *Mammalia*, *Aves*, *Amphibia*, *Pisces*, *Insecta*, and *Vermes*. Each chapter comprizes, 1. A recital of the common properties and appearances of the tribes belonging to the class; 2. An enumeration of the most distinguished authors who treat of it; 3. The Linnéan distribution of its orders; 4. The characters of the latter; 5. Those of the genera; 6. The names and characters of several of the species, not unfrequently accompanied with useful and interesting remarks, especially when the individuals are natives of Britain.

That we may give something like covering to this bare skeleton, we select a few out of many passages which might instruct or amuse our readers:

'3. Colymbus *Troile*. The Scout. The body black; the breast and belly snow-white; the secondary flag-feathers white at the tips.

'*Inhabits* the frozen seas of America, Europe, and Asia. B.

'This bird is called in Scotland the Marrot, in the island of St. Kilda, the Lavie. It appears about the beginning of February, and, in that island, is hailed as the auspicious harbinger of approaching plenty by the inhabitants. A St. Kilda man descends in the night by the help of a rope to the jutting ledge of a precipice, where he fixes himself, and, tying round him a piece of white linen, awaits the arrival of the Lavie: the bird, mistaking the white cloth for a piece of the rock, alights on it, and is immediately caught and dispatched. Sometimes 400 are taken in this way in one night, and, at dawn, the fowler is drawn up. This bird lays but one egg, which is very large; it makes no nest, and the egg has so slender a hold of the rock, that when the birds are surprized, and fly off suddenly, many of them tumble down into the sea.

'Gen. L. CLUPEA. Head compressed; mouth compressed and denticulated within; the maxillæ unequal, the upper furnished with serrated mystaces; tongue short, rough with teeth turned inwards; eyes middle-sized, round, and marginal; gills internally setaceous; the opercula consisting of 3 or 4 plates, 8 rays in the membrane. Body compressed, elongated, covered with scales; lateral line straight, near, and parallel to the back; the under part of the abdomen forming a serrated ridge; the ventral fins often with nine rays; the caudal long and forked.

'1. Clupea *Harengus*. The Herring. Without spots; the under jaw the longest.

'*Inhabits* the northern European and Atlantic oceans. B.

'The annual migration of Herrings in spring, from the icy seas where they have passed the winter, to more southern latitudes, has been

been called in question by some late Naturalists, who maintain that Herrings, like many other sea fish, frequent the deep seas, and approach the shores and the rough bottoms of the shallower places for the purpose of spawning. This happens at different times, and accordingly Herrings do not all come at the same seasons. In autumn, however, they depart, like other sea and river fishes, and repair to their accustomed haunts. Their food is small fishes and sea worms, particularly a small species of Crab, the Cancer *Halecum*, which abounds in the Norwegian seas. When the Herrings have fed on this insect, their intestines are found full of a reddish matter, which proceeds from the red ova of the crab. In this situation they do not take salt well, and in the opinion of some are sick at the time. When they are preparing to spawn, nothing is ever found in their stomachs, which is the case likewise with Salmon and other fishes; even some species of Phoca, at breeding time, live for months without almost eating any thing. Herrings are preyed on by various fishes and other animals, such as the Balæna *Mysticetus*, the Delphinus *Orca*; the sea birds, particularly the Pelecanus *bassanus*, which attends them in their course from their winter to their summer retreats *; the Larus *fuscus*, &c. the Salmo *Lavaretus* and *Trutta*, &c. The Herring is very prolific, the roe of one containing at least 10,000 ova; accordingly a shoal consists of myriads, and they form a most valuable article of commerce. The Herring is a northern fish, being seldom found farther south than the coast of France.

'The Pilchard is considered as a variety of the Herring: it differs in being shorter and in having the body less compressed; its rostrum is shorter and turns up; the under jaw is shorter than the upper; the back more elevated; the belly not so sharp; the dorsal fin is exactly in the centre of gravity; the scales are larger, and adhere more closely.

'2. Clupea *Sprattus*. The Sprat. With 13 rays in the dorsal fin.

'*Inhabits* the northern and Mediterranean seas. B.

'This species is from four to five inches long. It spawns in autumn, when it approaches the shores in swarms innumerable.

'3. Clupea *Alosa*. The Shad. Black spots on the sides; the rostrum bifid.

'*Inhabits* the Mediterranean and the northern European, American and Asiatic oceans. B.

'In May and June the Shad ascends the rivers, and deposits its spawn in rapid streams. In autumn it returns. It is from two to three feet long, lives on worms and insects; it is preyed on by the Siluri, Pikes, and Perches. It is detested by the Russians and the

'* The Solan geese generally quit the Bass in September or October, to follow the shoal of Herrings which frequent these shores in autumn, and which then proceed southward. But another shoal of Herrings having now for some seasons visited the Frith of Forth and continued the whole winter, great numbers of Solan geese, particularly, it is said, those of two years old, have remained in the Frith where their favourite food is abundant, and are thus saved the trouble of a six months migration.'

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inhabitants of the Wolga, although it is much relished elsewhere, and in India its ova are as highly esteemed, as Caviar is by the Russians. It is covered with large scales which easily come off.

'4. Clupea *Encrasicolus*. The Anchovy. The upper jaw the longest.

'*Inhabits* the northern European Ocean, the Atlantic, and Mediterranean. B.

'The Anchovy is about a span long; it draws near the shores, and lays its spawn from December to March. It formed the best garum, the sauce the Romans were so fond of, and, in the present day, when the head is taken off, and the intestines extracted, it is reckoned a most delicate pickle.'

Under the genus *Elater*, it is observed that

'Many of the coleopterous insects have a great difficulty in restoring themselves when laid on the back; the apparatus with which the insects of this genus are provided for that purpose, is singular and curious. An elastic spring, or spine, projects from the hinder extremity of the breast, and there is a groove or cavity in the anterior part of the abdomen. When laid on its back, the insect raises and sustains itself on the anterior part of the head and the extremity of the body, by which means the spine is removed from the groove where it is lodged, when in its natural position; then suddenly bending its body, the spine is struck with force, across a small ridge or elevation, into the cavity from whence it was withdrawn; by which shock, the parts of the body before sustained in the air, are so forcibly beat against whatever the insect is laid on, as to cause it to spring or rebound to a considerable distance. The antennæ are lodged in a cavity scooped out of the under side of the head and thorax, probably to preserve them, when the insect falls, after its singular leap. The larvæ live in putrid wood.'

'Gen. LXVI. Aphis. Rostrum inflected; the vagina with five articulations and a single seta. Antennæ setaceous, longer than the thorax. Wings four, erect, or none at all. Feet formed for walking. The abdomen generally armed with two horns.

'The insects of this genus are small and defenceless; but very noxious animals; and most remarkable for the singularities in their history and manners. There are many species of the genus, which, for the most part, inhabit particular plants, attaching themselves generally to the young twigs, to the footstalks or leaves, and exhausting the juices, by which means these parts, particularly the leaves, are deformed and destroyed. They exude, partly from the horns on their abdomen, and partly from two orifices at the same place, a sweetish juice which attracts Ants and other inimical insects. There are often in the same species, and even in the same family, individuals with wings and without wings; and that without any respect to the difference of sex. But the males are in general much smaller than the females, and also less numerous. They seldom appear before autumn, when they impregnate their females, who soon thereafter lay eggs or rather a sort of capsules, in which the young Aphides lie, already perfectly

fectly formed, but do not break their shell till the following spring. When they appear it is very remarkable that they are almost wholly females, with hardly a male to be seen during the whole spring and summer. Notwithstanding this, all these female Aphides, without any communication with a male, are able to propagate their species; and seem to have received the genial influence, not merely for themselves alone, but for their posterity to the ninth generation. During the whole summer they are viviparous, and if a young Aphis is taken, immediately upon exclusion from the mother, and kept apart, it will produce young; which young, if also kept apart, will likewise produce, and so on, without the presence of a male. Towards autumn, however, this singular fructification begins to lose its wonderful effects; the Aphides cease to bring forth females only; males likewise are produced, who immediately celebrate that nuptial rite which is to communicate fertility to the whole female posterity of the following summer. These facts are unquestionable; and the experiments are easily made. Let a person, in summer, take the leaf of a cabbage, which is infected with these minute insects, and he will find on the under surface a number of them together, covered with a sort of powder or whitish down. Upon carefully observing one of the largest, he will not fail, in a short time, to detect it in the act of parturition, when the young may be separated and kept apart on fresh cabbage leaves.—Most plants have their peculiar Aphides, but some are found on several plants. The species are with difficulty distinguished, and with still more difficulty defined. Linnæus has described but few, and has contented himself with mentioning the plants on which they are found. It is believed that the following are natives of Britain.

1. Aphis *Ribis*. The Aphis of the red Currant.
2. —— *Ulmi*. The A. of the Elm.
3. —— *Pruni*. The A. of the Plumb.
4. —— *Sambuci*. The A. of the Elder.
5. —— *Pruni cerasi*. The A. of the Cherry.
6. —— *Rumicis lapathi*. The A. of the Dock.
7. —— *Acetosæ*. The A. of the Wild Sorrel.
8. —— *Ligustici scotici*. The A. of the Lovage.
9. —— *Lychnidis*. The A. of the Lychnis dioica.
10. —— *Capreæ*. The A. of the Willow.
11. —— *Padi*. The A. of the Bird-cherry.
12. —— *Rosæ*. The A. of the Rose.
13. —— *Aegopodii podagrariæ* The A. of the Bishops-weed.
14. —— *Dauci*. The A. of the Carrot.
15. —— *Urticata*. The A. of the Nettle.
16. —— *Tiliæ*. The A. of the Lime-tree.
17. —— *Juniperi*. The A. of the Juniper.
18. —— *Brassicæ*. The A. of the Cabbage.
19. —— *Craccæ*. The A. of the Vicia Cracca.
20. —— *Lactucæ*. The A. of the Lettuce.
21. —— *Sonchi*. The A. of the Sow-thistle.
22. —— *Cirsii*. The A. of the Serratula arvensis.
23. —— *Cardui*. The A. of the Thistle.

24. Aphis

24. Aphis *Tanaceti.* The A. of the Tanzy.
25. —— *Absinthii.* The A. of the Wormwood.
26. —— *Millefolii.* The A. of the Millefoil.
27. —— *Avenæ sativæ.* The A. of the Oat.
28. —— *Fraxini.* The A. of the Ash-tree.
29. —— *Jaceæ.* The A. of the Centaurea jacea.
30. —— *Betulæ.* The A. of the Birch-tree.
31. —— *Alni.* The A. of the Alder.
32. —— *Fagi.* The A. of the Beech tree.
33. —— *Quercûs.* The A. of the Oak; with a very long proboscis.
34. —— *Pini.* The A. of the Scotch Fir.
35. —— *Salicis.* The A. of the Willow.
36. —— *Populi.* The A. of the leaves of the Aspen.
37. —— *Tremulæ.* The A. of the young branches of the Aspen.
38. —— *Viburni.* The A. of the Way-faring tree.
39. —— *Mali.* The A. of the Apple.
40. —— *Bursaria.* The A. of the Black Poplar.
41. —— *Aceris platanoides.* The A. of the Maple.
42. —— *Atriplicis.* The A. of the Orach.
43 —— *Plantaginis.* The A. of the Plantain.
44. —— *Leucanthemi.* The A. of the Ox-eye daisy.
45. —— *Scabiosæ.* The A. of the Scabious.
46. —— *Fabæ.* The A. of the Bean.'

'Gen. LXXIV. EPHEMERA. Mouth without any mandible. Palpi four, very short, and filiform. Maxilla short, membraneous, cylindrical, connected with the lip. Antennæ short, and subulated. Two large stemmata above the eyes. Wings erect, the hind ones very small. Setæ at the tail.

'The insects of this genus have their name from the shortness of their life after they become perfect, for they have previously lived one, two, or three years in the water as larvæ and pupæ. Some species live only a day, and others, as it is said, only a few hours. The larvæ have six feet, and six plumated fins on the sides of the abdomen, by which they swim: the pupa differs little, except in having at the thorax the cases which inclose the future wings. When about to undergo the last change, which happens generally about the end of May or beginning of June, the pupa approaches the land, and settles on a dry place; the skin bursts at the head and thorax, and the fly immediately appears with its wings extended, and takes flight. But what distinguishes the Ephemera from all other insects is, that it has still another skin to get rid of. For this purpose it settles on a near object, a wall, or a tree, and this second operation lasts longer than the first; sometimes it requires several hours, but in some small species only a few minutes, to disengage the insects from this last covering. A person standing by a pond or brook, in a close evening, in the beginning of June, will soon have his cloaths covered with these exuviæ. The creature being now the perfect insect, hastes away to perform the remaining function

tion of its nature. The males fill the air for a few hours after sunset, and the females hover upon the surface of the water to drop their eggs. In this period of their existence they take no nourishment, and therefore soon die.

The tail with three setæ.

'1. Ephemera *vulgata*. May-fly. Wings reticulated, and spotted with brown; the body brown.

'*Inhabits* Europe. B.

'This is the largest of the British species. In the evening in the month of June, it assembles in vast numbers under trees near waters, and seems to divert itself, for hours together, ascending and descending in the air as if dancing. In the neighbourhood of Laz, in Carniola, these insects are produced in such quantities that, when they die, they are gathered for dung to the ground by the country people, who think they have been unsuccessful, if each does not procure twenty cart-loads of them for that purpose. Their larvæ are the favourite food of fresh water fishes, as are also the flies: they are more numerous in running than in standing waters.'

Though we greatly approve the general structure of this introductory system, a few particulars appear to call for alteration or amendment. Of the preliminary statements and definitions, some will hardly stand the test of a logical or metaphysical scrutiny. To assert, for example, that 'water, air, earth, and an inflammable principle are the elements of natural bodies,' is to substitute ambiguous and delusive terms for the expression of a general doctrine.—Without being blind to the great advantages of methodical arrangement, and to the many recent improvements of nomenclature, we cannot gravely aver, 'that *every natural object* can now be distinguished with *certainty* and *facility* from *every other*.'

'That reason falls to the lot of *no* animal but man' is, at least, a questionable position. In man, certainly, this faculty exists in a pre-eminent degree: but how shall our vague notions of what we call *instinct* explain those deviations from stated conduct, which are obviously suggested by accidental change of situation or circumstance? The temporary wiles practised by some animals, and the ingenious expedients devised by others, permit us not to doubt that they are capable of comparing objects, and of foreseeing the probable result of contingencies.—Again, we are told 'that man can satisfy his endless necessities.' If by *necessities* we are to understand *essential wants*, these are few indeed: but, if the term have a reference to his *desires* and *ideal wants*, where shall we find the individual who ever satisfied them?

Had the editor perused Mr. Corse's communications relative to the elephant, in the recent volumes of our Philosophical Transactions, he would have suppressed or contradicted the trite

trite assertion, that, 'with the loss of freedom, this quadruped resigns the pleasures of love.'

As we never assisted at the *coucher* of an ursine seal, we presume not to dispute the number of his wives and concubines: but meek, obedient, and melting must be his thirty ladies, who not only tamely submit to his tyranny, but, *with tears in their eyes, fall at the feet of their lord, and supplicate forgiveness.*

With the hackneyed panegyric on the *noble* and *generous* disposition of the Lion, we beg leave to contrast two sentences from Barrow's Travels into Africa: "This powerful and treacherous animal is very common in the thickets about the salt-pan; treacherous, because it seldom makes an open attack, but, like the rest of the feline genus, lies in ambush, till it can conveniently spring upon its prey. Happy for the peasantry, the Hottentots, and those animals that are the objects of its destruction, were its noble and generous nature, that so oft has fired the imagination of poets, realized, and that his royal paw disdained to stain itself in the blood of any sleeping creature."

The Marmot, as has been too often repeated, is said to inhabit *the summit of the highest European Alps.* Yet Saussure affirms that, at 400 toises below the top of Mont-Blanc, cold and silence have usurped the place of all animal and vegetable existence.

Our naturalist considers *Mergus Castor,* though separately marked, as only a variety of *M. Merganser:* but should not the two additional tail-feathers, and the greater length of crest, be allowed to constitute a specific difference?

'The winter-gull,' says the author, 'often comes inland, particularly during winter, to feed on earth-worms and frogs, the half-digested remains of which it often disgorges in a gelatinous state, *and this is the substance called in English star-shot, or star-jelly.*'—This latter substance affects heathy moors and gravel-walks, shrinks during dry weather, expands with moisture, is most frequently observed from the vernal to the autumnal equinox, has been known to spring in the course of an hour or two in gardens near Paris, which were never haunted by the winter-gull, and really seems to be Linné's *Tremella Nostoch,* and to belong to the vegetable kingdom.

The antients taught, and the world believed, that both jaws of the crocodile are moveable. In this country, it was reserved, we believe, for the accurate Grew to detect and expose that learned and vulgar error, which should no longer find a place in such respectable volumes as those now before us.—This tyrant of the Nile is here also represented as *swallowing stones to*

assist his digestion: but the public are not obliged to *swallow* and *digest* such *crudities*.

In Volume I. p. 281; *Coluber cerastes* is said to be armed with *a horn:* but that singular animal is distinguished by a pair of horns, or curved processes, pointing forwards from above the eyes; as, indeed, may be seen in Mr. Ellis's figure and description, cited in the note.

Without entering into any examination of the conjectures of the curious respecting the proximate cause of Cleopatra's death, and the ingredients of the boasted *garum* of the antients, we do not deem ourselves warranted to assert, with the confidence of the editor, that the *Coluber vipera* effected the former, nor that the anchovy constituted the basis of the latter. The aspic's bite lulls not its victim to death by gentle slumbers; and the *scomber*, mentioned by Pliny and others, probably corresponds to the mackerel.—The Dolphin of the antients is here, in one place, *asserted* to be the *Delphinus delphis* of Linné; and it is *conjectured*, in another, to be the *Trichecus manatus*.—The difficulty would require a special commentator *in usum Delphini*.

Lanius rufus is mis-translated *whin-chat*, for *wood-chat*; and *Colymbus grylle* is rather improperly rendered *spotted guillemot*, which is a variety corresponding to *Uria grylle* of the *Index Ornithologicus*. The bird in question is the *black Guillemot* of Pennant, Latham, and others; the *Greenland dove*, or *sea-turtle* of Albin; and *le petit Guillemot* of Buffon.—*Scout* is only one of the provincial names of the *foolish guillemot*; and *Erne*, old and vulgar English for a *cottage*, is, perhaps, the Scottish appellation of the *cinereous Eagle*.

Of other trifling inadvertencies, we shall only notice that the mark B. has been omitted at *Porpus*, *Sand-eel*, and a few other British articles;—that the order *Hemiptera* commences at page 90 of the second volume, while the running title *Coleoptera* is retained to p. 97.;—and that, in the list of entomological writers, we have in vain searched for the recent and respectable names of *Latreille*, *Paykull*, *Coquebert*, *Losch*, *Frisch*, *Clairville*, and *Detigny*.

We have the more freely indulged in these petty strictures, because we flatter ourselves that the valuable Introduction to which they relate will survive a first impression; and we should be happy to see it freed from every speck which the hand of friendly revision can remove.

ART.

ART. V. *The History of the Reformation*, from the French of Mons. de Beausobre. By John Macaulay, Esq. A.B. M.R.I.A. Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 414. 8s. Boards. White, London.

WE are persuaded that we shall give great pleasure to the intelligent part of our readers, when we announce to them the appearance, in the English language, of a performance from the pen of M. de Beausobre, which has hitherto been little known in this country; and we think that they will not be surprised if they perceive that, amid the press of other urgent calls, and though the subject be a beaten one, the homage due to so great a name induces us to be somewhat particular in our survey of the performance which it adorns. To this minuteness, also, we feel the more inclined, because we took only a slight notice and gave only a general recommendation of the original work, at the time of its appearance *.

It may be true that this great master could not treat his subject with more fidelity, more impartiality, nor with more of a philosophical spirit, than had been manifested by Sleidan and Seckindorf: but he had it in his power to set events in a light which was better adapted to refute charges injurious to the cause and its leaders, that were invented long after his excellent predecessors had been at rest in their tombs. It was possible, also, to render the narrative in other respects more suitable to the circumstances of later times, and to cast it after more improved models of historical composition; and this he has done in a manner which will not disappoint those who knew what to expect from his talents, his attainments, and his literary probity. We hold ourselves, therefore, highly obliged to the translator, for this addition which he has made to the choice stores of literature, that are accessible to the English reader; and mortified, indeed, shall we find ourselves, if the support given to him by the public should not encourage him to proceed with the remainder of his task. Its contents are not to be confined to the study of ecclesiastics; for it claims the attention of all who would understand our modern civil history, since the reformation is the hinge on which this part of our annals turns, and its tenor and complexion are derived from this source. The person, therefore, who would be skilled in it must make himself acquainted with the secret springs, the progress, and the consequences of the religious revolution of which we are speaking; and no where will he meet with more correct and satisfactory information with respect to them, than in the work before us. That the defama-

* See Rev. Vol. lxxiii. p. 531.

tory romance which disgraces the memory of one of the finest geniuses of the 17th century, and which even reflects on the system of religion that could so far debauch so choice a mind, gave rise to the present performance, there cannot be the least doubt, though the author is silent on the subject. The reader will discern how completely the calumnies, so artfully introduced in those disingenuous pages, fall to the ground, when contrasted with the simple relations of naked facts here given; here the great event of Luther's reformation is placed on its true basis; and the character of its hero and his supporters is drawn in the colours of truth. Independently of the general interest of the subject, and considered in the light only of a masterly specimen of historical composition, this narrative possesses a claim abundantly sufficient to intitle it to general attention.

The work was first communicated to the public in the year 1785; and it appears that it had received the last finish from the author's own hand, since we trace in it scarcely an instance of those defects which commonly mark posthumous publications. The style of the translation is easy and perspicuous, though not sufficiently free from slight inaccuracies: but, not possessing the original, we cannot speak of its fidelity, though we have no doubt that, in this respect, it does not materially fail.

The sale of indulgences having been entrusted by the court of Rome to the Dominicans, it has been very generally admitted that Luther's first opposition to them arose from a jealousy which he shared in common with his order, (that of the Augustins,) occasioned by this preference given to a rival fraternity. Less authority than that of Fra. Paoli, who first advanced this conjecture in his *Ist. Conc. Tud.*, would have been sufficient to gain it credit; although it is extremely well known that incorrectnesses, in smaller matters, no where more abound than in that immortal work, which is otherwise so incomparable, and on all great points so authentic. The facts, however, which the present author adduces, most clearly and satisfactorily refute this idea. He observes:

'With respect to pique, it is pretended that the Augustins conceived a jealousy against the Dominicans because the management of the indulgences was committed to them; but it is a conjecture which was first advanced by Francis Paolo, and of which no trace is to be found in the ancient records of that time; so that even cardinal Bellarmin did not venture to take advantage of it. Maimbourg himself has done no more than insinuate it, and he attributes it to Staupitz, and not to Luther.'—

'This historian, completely prejudiced as he is, inclines to believe that the irregularities of the collectors were the cause of Luther's preaching;

preaching; and, certainly, he never appeared to act upon interested motives. He was not, moreover, a man disposed to become the instrument of the avarice and resentment of his order. It is, besides, false that the Augustins possessed the office of preaching indulgences in Saxony. The Dominicans had exercised that employment there since the year 1507; and Tetzel in two days had raised two thousand florins from the inhabitants of Fridburg, without the Augustins having manifested any desire for them, or having pretended that this booty belonged of right to their order.'

It has also been often stated that Luther, in the very earliest stages of his proceedings, was encouraged in his career by the Elector of Saxony. The contrary is clearly proved in these pages; viz. that he acted wholly from his own impulses, and at his own risk, without the knowlege of his prince; and that he even perpetrated the act which irrevocably embroiled him with Rome, namely the public burning, at Wittemburgh, of the Decretals, and the Pope's bull condemning his doctrines, before Frederic countenanced his designs.—The reader will here find an extremely neat and satisfactory sketch of Luther's history and character, prior to his having engaged in the controversy respecting indulgences; it is the delineation of him while he was a private individual. The proceedings of the diet of Augsbourg, as they respect our great reformer, are stated with superior clearness and accuracy.

There is nothing more admirable in this work than the inviolable regard to truth which pervades it: the proceedings of the illustrious reformer are placed in open day; if, in a few instances, they shew him to have been inconsistent, the fact is not denied; and considerations are laid before the reader, which, we think, are abundantly exculpatory.—As nice touches and imperceptible lines distinguish the performances of a master from the productions of an ordinary artist, so, in history, real genius often lays hold of slight circumstances, which the vulgar narrator overlooks, but which speak volumes, which bring past scenes before our eyes, and exhibit its occurrences to the very life; and with a few of these, which we have endeavoured to glean, we shall occupy the remainder of the present article.

We would first observe that, in perusing this history, we are much struck by the facility with which, according to all appearance, the court of Rome might have put an end to Luther's disputes; and the idea is confirmed by an account which the author gives of the conduct of the Roman see in a preceding similar case:

'Alexander VI. had not been equally rigorous in a dispute nearly similar. Innocent VIII. had granted indulgences in Saxony,

and the Dominicans had opposed them both in their sermons and public disputes. The abuses were, without comparison, of less magnitude than those which Luther censured; yet the court of Rome appointed nevertheless commissaries in Germany; and, after proceedings for four or five years, contented itself with imposing silence on the Dominicans without requiring recantation. This court would have practised the same moderation in the affair of Luther; but the violence of his adversaries would not permit it.'

Within two years after Luther's first opposition to indulgences, Miltitz, a papal nuncio, came into Germany, in order to require that Luther should be conveyed to Rome:

'On setting out from Rome, Leo had charged him with seventy briefs. He had some for the Elector, for Pfeffinger, for Spalatinus, for the commandant, and for the magistrates of Wittemberg. The rest were to be posted up in the cities through which the nuncio should pass on his return, in order to assure his conquest and his journey. But as soon as he had set foot in the empire, he saw clearly that all the briefs would be useless; and he himself asserted, that although the court of Saxony had delivered up Luther to him, he would have needed more than twenty-five thousand men to bring him to the pope.'

This anecdote shews the deep root which Luther's cause had already taken.—On the death of Maximilian, which happened early in 1519,

'The elector of Saxony had the vicarship of the empire in the circles of Upper and Lower Saxony, and in some other provinces where his jurisdiction extended during the interregnum. At this time those who entertained an esteem for Luther began to declare themselves. They found in Frederick the authority necessary to protect them, and an example which the wisest gloried in following. Every person, besides, entertained so high an opinion of the wisdom and integrity of this prince, that no one could imagine he would protect a seditious and heretical monk. Thus the reputation of Frederick giving a new weight to his authority, and the writings of Luther spreading far and wide, it is scarcely to be believed how many disciples he acquired, and with what readiness. His courage was admired; his doctrine was approved; an acquaintance with the author was sought. People came from all parts to Wittemberg; and the inhabitants of the suburbs were to be heard giving thanks to God, with clasped hands, and eyes raised to heaven, that Wittemberg was become a second Sion, whence the light of the gospel was diffusing itself through the whole world.'

We farther learn that,

'In the mean time, Luther found his courage raised by the universal approbation which the learned and good bestowed on him. His writings flew from Germany to France, to Italy, to England, to Hungary, to Poland. Thirsting after the gospel, and rejecting monkish fables and the doctrines of men, the public eagerly perused

perused works, in which they found good sense and the spirit of the gospel.'—

'The celebrated painter, Froben, gave him advice of his success, and acquainted him that it was publicly said at Paris, that it had long been wished that those who treated on sacred subjects, should do it with the freedom and solidity which were found in his writings; that in Italy itself many epigrams had appeared in his praise, and that the cardinal of Sion, one of the most learned men of his age, could not refrain from crying out, alluding to his name, *O Luther! Thou art truly Luther!* that is to say, truly *pure*.'

About this time, he received a very flattering letter from Erasmus; in which the usual happy vein of ridicule possessed by that extraordinary man is conspicuous, in the account, which he transmits of the conduct pursued by the reformer's enemies, as it fell under his notice.

He tells him also, "You have in England people who esteem your works, and these are persons of the highest rank. There are some even here whose affection you have gained, and among those, a man of great merit."—"I have begun to read your commentary on the Psalms; it pleases me much, and I hope it will be of great use."

The historian also informs us that 'Erasmus, moreover, had written to the elector, that the conduct of Luther was universally esteemed, and his books eagerly read: a testimony, which not a little contributed to determine that prince to protect him.'—If we reflect on the elevated port of Luther's mind, we shall be duly sensible of the extraordinary animation which it would derive from circumstances of the nature of those above stated.

An incident, which occurred at this period, shews in a striking manner the nature of the times; it is told by Erasmus as having happened when he was printing his St. Jerome; and he relates that 'some celebrated divines had gone to Bâle to the house of his printer *, to conjure him in the name of God to leave out in his edition all the Greek and Hebrew words to be found in St. Jerome, because these languages were very dangerous, and tended only to ostentation and curiosity.'—Another fact, illustrative of the times, is given by the author in a quotation from Dorpius, a sensible scriptural writer, who died in the catholic communion; and who, speaking of the divines of his time, says: 'they passed the valuable years of their youth in studying logic, and did not think ten years too

* Per omnia sacra typographum obtestantes, ne quid græcitatis aut hebraïsmi pateretur admisceri; ingens in eis literis esse periculum, nec quicquam esse fructus, ad solam curiositatem paratis, &c. Erasm.'

much to acquire the art of composing sophisms in perfection; of inveloping truth in darkness, and of defending falsehood and truth with equal probability.'

The friends of Luther much dreaded the consequences of a work which he had just brought out against the temporal power of the Pope; and we learn that 'he was entreated to suppress it; but he replied that it was impossible, four thousand copies having been sold.'—This is a sufficient proof of a general disposition in favour of the new doctrines.

We are also told that,

'While proceedings were carried on against Luther at Rome, Providence raised him up protectors in Germany. Sylvester de Schaumbourg, of an illustrious house among the nobility of Franconia, and Francis de Seckengen, a gentleman who possessed great interest in the empire, wrote to him to assure him of their support and friendship. Schaumbourgh wrote to him, that he had been informed by persons of worth and learning, that as long as his doctrine was founded only upon Scripture, and submitted to equitable and enlightened judges, he would not fail to be persecuted; that he intreated him not to seek an asylum in Bohemia, because the smallest communication with the Bohemians would render his cause odious; that he offered him a retreat, together with the protection of an hundred gentlemen, with whom he might await in safety the decision of his affair.'

It has already appeared that Luther was much indebted to the favourable testimonies borne towards him by Erasmus; and we shall now see that this elegant genius afterward had it in his power to render him a more important service. He happened to be at Cologne at the time at which the Elector of Saxony was also there; and this Prince, before he took any farther step in Luther's cause, sent for Erasmus, to learn his opinion, by which he was determined to be guided. At their interview,

'After some civilities, he said to Erasmus, "I have the highest antipathy to heresy, and I would rather that the earth should swallow me alive, than that I should support and favour it. But if Luther teach the truth, I never will suffer him to be crushed, let the danger of defending him be ever so great to me and mine. I confess that the points at issue are above my skill, and I do not pretend to judge, of myself, whether Luther be in the right or not: I wish to be informed, and to consult the learned. I have brought you here to know your opinion, and I entreat you to give it me with sincerity."

'Erasmus appeared surprised at this discourse; and whether it was that he was considering of his answer, or was afraid to explain himself, he remained for some time in silence. But the elector regarding him steadily, and with that grave and solemn air which appeared upon his countenance whenever he was engaged in any affair of importance, Erasmus at last broke silence. "Luther," said he,

"has committed two capital offences. He has struck at the crown of the pope, and the belly of the monks." The prince could not refrain from laughing, and never forgot this reply. Erasmus continuing his discourse, admitted that Luther was justified in attacking the abuses introduced into the church; that it was necessary they should be corrected; that the foundation of his doctrine was true, but that he could have wished for greater moderation.

'Spalatinus attended Erasmus to the house of the provost of the chapter. As soon as they had arrived there, Erasmus took a chair, and immediately wrote in short and distinct sentences his opinion concerning Luther. This writing he put into the hands of Spalatinus, to convey to his master.'

The statement was highly favourable to the reformer, and strongly censured his enemies: concluding thus; "that, in fine, the world sighed for evangelical doctrine, and that it would be extremely dangerous to oppose the general wish in an odious and violent manner."

Aleander, it is well known, endeavoured to engage Erasmus 'to write against Luther by the promise of a bishopric. It is even said that, one day being much pressed, Erasmus replied, that the undertaking was beyond his powers, and that he found more true divinity in one page of Luther's writings, than in all the compendium of St. Thomas.'

When we consider how important was the elector's support of Luther to the success of the reformation, we shall be sensible how much that cause stands obliged to Erasmus; whose opinion, had it been adverse, would in all probability have occasioned that prince to have left the reformer to his fate.

Frequent reference is made by the author to a work intitled, *A History of the Preliminaries of the Reformation, or Remarks*, &c. which, it appears, was intended to have preceded the narrative before us: but the translator says that he is not informed whether it ever was published. If it has been, we have no doubt that an English edition of it would be deemed an acceptable service to the public.

ART. VI. *The Trident;* or, the National Policy of Naval Celebration: Describing a Hieronauticon, or Naval Temple, with its Appendages; proposing a Periodical Celebration of Naval Games, and, on occasion of Victories of the first Magnitude, the Granting of Triumphs: These Works and Institutions being intended to foster the rising Arts of Britain into a full Maturity, and a successful Rivalship with those of Rome and Greece; and to keep alive, and in full lustre, to the latest Generations, the present Heroic Spirit of the British Navy. By a private Gentleman. 4to. pp. 208. with Plates. 1l. 1s. Boards. Johnson. 1803.

POETS and artists, in all ages, have been solicitous to honour splendid atchievements, and thus to stimulate the human

mind to noble and virtuous exertions. It was to be expected, therefore, after the brilliant victories lately obtained by the British Navy, that various schemes should be formed by men of genius, for a grand national commemoration of them, and for pointing to future heroes the road to fame. The first idea suggested was that of a *naval pillar*; next, that of a *magnificent colossal statue of Britannia* holding the trident; then, a *national mausoleum*, to be adorned with paintings and sculptures in honour of our defenders; and to these we are now to add that vast and stupendous conception which is detailed in the pages before us. It affords a proof of the author's boundless imagination and patriotic views: but great indeed must have been his faith, if he ever indulged a hope of seeing it executed. What a low diminutive object would St. Paul's Cathedral appear compared with a temple surmounted with a pillar, the top of which is 600 feet from the ground! And how daring must that architect be who should attempt such an erection!—The elevation of the Hieronauticon, like an academy-drawing, is calculated to produce an effect on paper, and the ideas of the author will evince the creative powers of his mind, as well as his enthusiasm for the glory of the British Navy. On these accounts, therefore, it may be pleasing to enter into some consideration of his scheme; and thus the design may be visible to the imagination; although the reality, for various reasons, will probably not be presented to the eye.

Without minutely discussing the merits or defects of this plan, it may suffice for us to say that the author proposes that a hieronauticon or naval temple should be erected, in which the atchievements of our navy might be commemorated in a suitable manner by statues and decorations; by periodical games and festivals resembling those of antient Greece; and by granting triumphs, in imitation of the Romans, to great and victorious commanders. The plan of the temple and its appendages, as it is described in the several chapters of this volume, is very elaborate, and displays a high degree of imagination in the allegorical embellishments of such a costly edifice.—The execution of such a design, the author considers, would contribute not only to the glory of our naval worthies, but conduce at the same time to the cultivation and improvement of the fine arts; which would be called into action for the ornaments of the original building, and for the exhibitions in poetry, sculpture, painting, &c. which would be made at the periodical festivals.

An additional reason for the adoption of such a scheme is urged in the following extract; and we heartily wish that the rivalship, to which the author alludes in this passage, between England

England and France, might in future be the only subsisting emulation between the two countries:

'The comprehensive mind will grasp another cause for executing the projected work in a manner the most grand. When *Britain* beholds her rival, with as much policy as pride, arraying herself in the rich spoils of ravaged *Italy*; and, by her inestimable gallery of the *Thuilleries*, and her fifteen other rich collections deposited in her departments, manifesting an ambition to render her whole territory a school of the fine arts, and contriving the most captivating allurements for drawing thither all the genius of *Europe*; *Britain* has indeed a cause for alarm. If therefore *Britain* find not the means to attach to her own soil her native genius; if she strike not out, on a scale worthy of herself, encouragement to her own artists, she must of necessity see them emigrate, to swell the triumphs of her more politic rival. If in our future rivalship with *France*—a rivalship that must henceforward call forth all our faculties—we mean not that she shall acquire the ascendant, we must recollect, that the first constituent in national greatness, is elevation of mind and dignity of soul; and that those sentiments are cultivated to the highest advantage, by constant addresses to that faculty within us, which is peculiarly conversant with those qualities that are the high ornaments of man. It is the imagination which lifts the man of genius above the man of ordinary standard; the hero above the mere man of courage; in short, it is imagination which, in an eminent degree, constitutes the difference between greatness and mediocrity in men and in nations. Here is the foundation in our nature, for the high importance, in a national view, of the fine arts. Had the small states of *Greece* been as destitute of a taste for the fine arts as the vast *Persian* empire, the laurels of *Marathon* had never encircled the brow of *Miltiades!* Even in a commercial view, it is our policy to cherish the arts with a warm and fostering hand, as hath been abundantly proved, by the rapid improvements in our pottery, and a great variety of our manufactures, since the establishment of the Royal Academy; improvements which gave them a decided preference in every foreign market.

'What the fine arts alone had long done for modern *Rome* in her state of degradation, is known to every traveller, and is full of admonition, even to statesmen whose minds soar not above political arithmetic. But when the degree in which the authority of antient *Rome* was established over the minds of other nations, in consequence of the magnificence she derived from the fine arts, is duly regarded by the philosophic statesman, he will be more inclined to build his fame on a patronage of art, under the peaceful olive, than on the doubtful recourse to arms, in any case not of imperious necessity.'—

'Did but the whole island of *Britain* contain the works of art that once adorned the diminutive city of *Athens*, she would possess an inestimable treasure that would liberally fertilize her plains by the innumerable rills of wealth which artists and resorting strangers would every where diffuse over the land. And what forbids? Wants she means? Wants she natural genius? Wants she the power of obtaining materials? No: But she wants, amongst her great men, a new fashion in the objects of expence; and in her statesmen, the taste

and

and genius of a *Pericles*. She wants, also, INSTITUTIONS fertile in the productions of art, and rouzing the energies of genius; institutions, by means of which a wise legislature may effect moral purposes of the highest import to society.

'Such institutions were the celebrated games of *Greece*, which in the highest degree contributed to the superiority of the *Greek* nations, in arms, arts, and literature.'

The succeeding passage developes the author's views of national policy, and will discover *unde movetur opus*:

'The first, and paramount, of all national interests, is political freedom; the only legitimate cause of war, self-defence; the only defence which, in respect of public freedom, is safe, and, in respect of invasion, infallible, is the people themselves being armed. To the great ALFRED we, in this country, owe a system of defence and tranquillity—which, in our *posse comitatus*, has a neglected existence—the most perfect that the wit of man has yet conceived, and, were it but restored to full vigour, we need never keep at home, in time of war, more than a sufficiency of ships for chastising such hostile cruisers as might insult our coasts, or for cutting off the retreat of predatory invaders; while all the rest might spread themselves, without reserve, wherever we had dependencies, infant colonies, or commerce to protect; and the defence of such dependencies and colonies, and the operations of offensive war abroad, are the sole services we need require at the hands of a professional soldiery; thus augmenting, in a high degree, our military strength, without augmenting our expences.

'Real colonies are off-sets, shooting from the root of the mother country, nourished by the same juices, governed by the same kind of law, and entitled to the same freedom; so, when they have grown to maturity, it is their duty to defend themselves, and it must ever be the interest of the mother country, on reasonable terms, to protect their commerce. Colonies, while properly treated, are gardens, richly productive of trade; whence they become augmentations of natural strength and power, which, if wisely exercised, will wear well. But foreign subjugated *dependencies* are of another origin, another character, and necessarily tend to other consequences. They are, in an eminent degree, the seed-beds of war; and, like the spices and spirituous liquors, which some of them produce, although for a while they strengthen and invigorate, their latent tendency, unless counteracted by uncommon wisdom and virtue, is to debilitate and destroy; and, in case they are of a nature to yield great wealth in return for little industry, then that tendency will become very obvious, and the danger much increased.'

It should be considered, however, that we are not, like the Romans, a nation thirsting after the conquest of the world, but a commercial and a peaceful people. Another objection lies against the adoption of rites and ceremonies connected with the popular superstition of Greece and Rome. This is not a puritanical plea, but justified rather by a consideration of

cause

cause and effect on the popular mind. It is not possible to separate, in the conceptions of the vulgar, allegorical from real religion. Philosophers would be in no danger from the introduction of Neptune, Mars, &c. into a temple of Fame: but the populace are no philosophers, and they will be influenced by the impressions made on their senses.

Since the publication of this volume, the author has been induced to alter the naval ode which appears at page 97; and consequently it will be but fair to inform his readers, that some corresponding alterations will be necessary in the designs for the bas-relief proposed to be taken from the sentiments of that ode. —As to our honest tars, we cannot suppose that their valour or zeal for the honour of their country would be animated to an unusual pitch by Grecian Models and Grecian Muses. Contrary to the author's expectation, we apprehend that they would prefer the sign of the *Three Tuns* to that of *Thalia*, and would not be reconciled to *Polyhymnia* till they had transformed it to their taste, after the manner now pursued by them with respect to the classical and foreign names of ships in the navy; pronouncing the *Bellerophon*, the *Bully-Ruffian*; the *Bienfaisant*, the *Bonny Pheasant*; the *Æolus*, the *Alehouse*, &c. The naval ode, however, (a paraphrase on the favorite *Rule, Britannia,*) they will understand; and, as its sentiments ought to glow in all British bosoms, whether afloat or on shore, we shall give it from the corrected copy which has been communicated to us:

'THE NAVAL ODE.

1.

'When, from old Ocean's dread profound,
Up rose our Isle, at Heaven's command,
The Triton Band, with trumpet's sound,
Proclaimed this Charter of the land;
Rule, Britannia, rule the waves;
Britons never will be slaves.

2.

'Though potent hosts, combin'd, assail;
Thine empire, still, Thou shalt maintain;
Still, still thy Genius shall prevail,
And guardian gods repeat this strain;
Rule, Britannia, &c.

3.

'Ev'n more majestic, shalt Thou rise,
More awful, from each foreign stroke;
As warring winds, that shake the skies,
Root but more firm thy native oak.
Rule, &c.

'Thee,

4.

'Thee, lawless tyrants ne'er shall tame;
All their attempts to bend Thee down,
Shall but arouse thy gen'rous flame,
Their woe to work, and thy renown.
Rule, Britannia, rule the waves;
Britons never will be slaves.

5.

'The rural sceptre thou shalt sway;
In commerce, too, supreme shalt reign;
All seas thy Trident shall obey,
And hail Thee Mistress of the Main.
Rule, &c.

6.

'The Muses, e'er with Freedom found,
Shall to thy happy coasts repair;
Blest Isle, with matchless beauty crown'd,
And manly hearts to guard the Fair.
Rule, &c.

7.

'The nations, not so blest as Thee,
Must in their turns to tyrants fall;
While Thou shalt flourish, great and free,
The envy, fear, yet hope of all.
Rule, Britannia, &c.'

Perhaps it will be better to expend the national money in maintaining our actual superiority on the seas, than in erecting monuments. If the empire of the ocean should be wrested from us, useless and worse than useless would be the pillar, temple, or pyramid, which recorded the names of our once victorious heroes and proclaimed our departed glory. The thanks of Englishmen, however, should be given to the motives of the respectable author of this volume; while equal praise is due to the minute attention, the elaborate details, and the creditable talents, which have been bestowed on his design.

ART. VII. *A Review of the French Revolution;* with Inferences respecting Men and Manners in all Ranks of Society; and the Moral Improvement of Peace. By the Rev. William Cameron, Kirknewton. 8vo. pp. 237. 6s. 6d. Boards. Hill, Edinburgh; Cadell and Davies, London. 1802.

WE agree with the author of this publication in lamenting the abuse to which, in the present age, a great many good things have been exposed; and we do not deny that philosophical inquiry, toleration, our general prosperity, and in fine

fine nearly all our blessings, have submitted to this fate. If we go thus far with Mr. Cameron, however, we cannot follow him in his predilections; we have no relish for barbarism; we do not wish to see intolerance rear its head among us; we applaud no measures, and we exult in no events, which have humbled the spirit and mortified the just pride of the nation. Why are we to be told, for ever, that the French egregiously misused the liberty which they gained, and that they have shewn themselves incapable of truly estimating and enjoying it? Is this a reason which should induce Englishmen to surrender their rights, abjure their privileges, consecrate arbitrary rule, and cancel the fairest and most beneficial charter which the heroism of brave ancestry, the experience of ages, and the growing wisdom of time, united to procure, and to render the heritage of a nation? Is this the sacrifice which, for the good of our souls, and the quiet of society, we are required to make? Or is it serving Christianity, to represent it as favourable to the uncontrolled power of rulers, and hostile to the free state of man? The servile sophists who would thus describe it are not more enemies to human welfare, than they are false traitors to the divine religion whose offices they administer. That heavenly system as strongly enjoins rulers not to exceed the limits of their commissions, as it requires subjects to fulfil their obligations; the lawless oppressive magistrate is not less condemned by its maxims, than the private individual who has violated his allegiance: inculcating the universal obligation to purity of motive, to rectitude of conduct, and to general virtuous demeanour, it necessarily inspires its professors with a hatred of tyranny, corruption, and oppression; and it recognizes sound political liberty as its best ally, in advancing the human character to perfection. The tenet that the Christian system is favourable to despotism, and draws no line between it and legitimate defined authority, is as unfounded as it is derogatory to the benevolent Author of our faith.

In reading this work, we marked innumerable passages which bespoke the extremes of one kind to which the author had been led by his detestation of opposite excesses; and we had proceeded to quote them, and to subjoin the annotations which they required. We have at last, however, been induced to cancel the larger portion of them, by finding that they had extended to a length to which we dared not trespass on the patience of our readers, with such ungrateful materials. A few of them must suffice, to shew the nature of Mr. Cameron's views and doctrines.

Having enumerated the horrors of the revolutionary period, the author lays them all at the door of philosophy, which

he thus apostrophizes: 'Behold these, the wondrous effects of philosophy, nursed in the bosom of peace, of wealth, and prosperity, and raised thus to enlighten and ennoble the glorious and ever memorable eighteenth century!' What are we to understand by this philosophy, here so cavalierly treated? Is it that which teaches us to apply demonstration to mathematics, induction to physics, and analysis to moral inquiries; which directs us, by a proper course of dispassionate research, to ascertain the utility of things, and to estimate and value them accordingly? How long will writers persist in this vague and dangerous abuse of a term which, in its true meaning, imports studies so essential to the happiness and dignity of man!

Mr. Cameron assures us that,

'When subjects remain peaceable and loyal, rulers are inclined to be mild and indulgent; when turbulent and rebellious, rulers will consequently be suspicious and severe. On this principle, the plain precepts of Christianity, which forbid resistance, tend not only to make happy and contented people, but gentle and merciful magistrates; as, "*a soft answer turneth away wrath,*" and generally conciliates favour at last, even from the most cruel disposition. An instance of this was found in Tiberius Cæsar, who was a merciless tyrant to his own rebellious subjects, but favourable to Christians, on account of their virtue and loyalty inspired by their religion, and he therefore denounced death on all their enemies. Augustus Cæsar, while his power was disputed, appeared cruel and distrustful; the moment he became absolute, he became also mild and unsuspicious, and the greatest blessing that Rome ever experienced in a prince.'

Tiberius 'a merciless tyrant to his own rebellious subjects!' Was he a tyrant only to rebels?—When Augustus became absolute, then he became all that was good! What is the inference? If an usurper, if a limited potentate, harasses and oppresses his subjects, let them render legitimate the station of the one, let them resign to the other all their rights, and invest him with uncontrolled power? Is this the doctrine preached at Kirknewton; and which, it is insinuated, the *great* do not countenance as they ought by their personal attendance?

The tolerant spirit which, in our judgment, was so great an ornament to the pages of Dr. Campbell's masterly reply to Mr. Hume *, is here bitterly reprobated. What Mr. Cameron would have had done to the poor philosopher, whose unfortunate sceptical turn we lamented as much as he did, he is not obliging enough to tell us: but we may collect it from the marked aversion with which he notices the declaration of Dr. C. 'that he should be "heartily sorry if ever in this island,

* See M. R. vol. xxxv. N. S. p. 264.

the

the asylum of liberty, any other check should be given to the adversaries of religion" than such as he himself has given.' Why will not Mr. Cameron speak out, and let us know what the discipline is which he would have applied to the literary veteran?—Similar delinquency is attached to an illustrious cotemporary of Principal C., of higher rank, and of more refined and profound literature; we mean the late Bishop of London; who, in his celebrated sermon at Durham, delivered sentiments which exactly coincide with those of the northern Professor, against which the anathemas of the Presbyter of Kirknewton are fulminated.

Nothing is more reprobated by Mr. Cameron, and by writers of his cast, than laxity of religious principles: but what was our surprize when we read the following passage in his work!

'When we consider the extreme corruption of human nature, and what kind of laws is best adapted to restrain and rectify this corruption, the institutions of Popery will not appear *all* so black and atrocious as our *violent* reformers represent them; especially when we have now experienced the effects of civil and religious liberty in Church and State, in the innumerable puny religious sects of Christianity, the political clubs and societies eternally squabbling, spreading schism and sedition universally through the kingdom, to the scandal, disquiet, and danger of the constitution; and still more especially, when we have now experienced *liberty completely triumphant*, and can compare the ancient Hierarchy and Monarchy with a republican French Directory.'

Does this gentle language respecting the Romish religion proclaim no departure from the principles of forefathers, which Mr. C. represents it as so meritorious steadily to support, and to preserve untainted? How many years have passed since a Scotch divine would have been brought before the Presbytery, and then ordered to appear before the General Assembly, for half this complaisance to the w—— of Babylon?

Having dilated on the evils that have followed from the ill use which this age has made of toleration, and of civil and religious liberty, the author bursts out, and demands:

'Have not individuals, both in a public and private capacity, both as rulers and subjects, been allowed to speak, and write, and publish without controul, the most inflammatory and seditious sentiments, through a course of many years? Have not clubs and associations of all ranks of people been allowed openly and fearlessly to libel the laws, the supreme legislature and courts of justice, to insult with impunity the sacred dignity of Majesty, and thus avowedly and daringly to summon the people to actual rebellion? Has not the liberty of the press been abused into licensed scandal, in being suffered to pour forth the foulest and most pestilential torrent of defamation of dignities, of sophistry and treason, from the many-mouthed hydras of Chronicles,

Chronicles, Gazetteers, and Couriers, monthly, weekly, daily, and hourly teeming in every city and parish of the kingdom, sufficient in one twelvemonth to poison and pervert, or at least to confound, distract, and rouse to insurrection twenty millions of people?'

He then adds these terrible lines, which seem to pass sentence of death on the first of human blessings, the proud distinction of Britons:

'It is much to be dreaded, that Liberty has been so long abused and corrupted to the heart, that a complete and radical cure may endanger her very existence, and *that her death may be thought preferable* to the evils she has occasioned, by assuming the form and character of Anarchy, of all imaginable monsters or demons the most hideous and destructive.'

We hate, as much as the author does, all licentiousness, anarchy, and insubordination: but never with our consent shall that glorious freedom which our forefathers asserted, established, and transmitted to us, be violated in the smallest degree. We deprecate dangers of all kinds: but, in the choice of evils, we adopt from our hearts the sentiment, *malo periculosam libertatem, quam quietum servitium*; an alternative which has guided the conduct of the heroes and martyrs of liberty in every period of our history.

ART. VIII. *The History of the Anglo-Saxons*, from the Death of Egbert to the Norman Conquest. Vols. II. and III. By Sh. Turner, F. A. S. 8vo. pp. 400. each Vol. 16s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1801.

THE early records of all nations labour under similar defects and obscurities, from the operation of the same causes. As a Roman historian observes, *omnis antiquitas fabulosa est*; and when ignorance and superstition generally prevail, history will be, according to the remark of another antient, *poeticis magis decora fabulis, quam incorruptis rerum gestarum monumentis*. The annals of our own country are not less illustrative of this fact than the mythological periods of Grecian and Roman story; and, in availing ourselves of the accounts of our remote ancestors, we must recollect the darkness with which they were enveloped, and exercise no inconsiderable portion of philosophical acumen in discerning the truth through the thick mass of legendary fiction. In composing the first part of the work before us, (see M.R. Vol. xxxiii. N. S. p. 293.) Mr. Turner was obliged to have recourse to materials of this kind; and though, in advancing, he approaches at every step nearer to the region of authentic narrative, the track which he pursues in these subsequent volumes is often too much obscured

secured to be trodden with absolute confidence and satisfaction. It must be admitted that little thought and diligence have been exerted on the history of England, anterior to the Conquest; and the reasons for this deficiency appear to have been a conviction of the rude and savage state of our Saxon ancestors, with the despair of arriving even by the most painful research at genuine information. We are obliged, however, to the antiquary who is not deterred by the difficulty of the undertaking; and who endeavours to illustrate a portion of our history, which, if not the most momentous, ought by no means to be neglected.

In order to interest us in the details contained in these volumes, Mr. Turner observes that

'The giant empire of all-conquering Rome had secured for the little dwarf, from which it sprang, an everliving sympathy and veneration. But has not the British nation diffused itself with glory into every quarter of the globe? Will it not be ranked with the most celebrated, for arms, for arts, for letters, for commerce, and for science? Surely then the childhood and growth of this people cannot disgrace the curiosity of their descendants.'—'We owe to the institutions, the bravery, and the virtues of our Anglo-Saxon ancestors, so much of that glory and happiness, which for ages have been naturalized among us, that it is a reasonable tribute of our gratitude, to consecrate their memory with renewed admiration.'

Saxon literature being essential to the elucidation of Saxon history, it is recommended as an object of study; and, since there are some MS. Saxon Chronicles in the Cotton Library, which contain passages not to be found elsewhere, Mr. T. is of opinion that they ought to be printed for the public use. He adds: 'If the Society of Antiquaries could spare a part of its funds for this laudable purpose, it would deserve the thanks, not only of the curious student, but of the nation at large, whose ancient history they would conduce to elucidate. If the funds of this society are already too well appropriated to be diverted to other objects, perhaps the Committee of the House of Commons, whose labours on our ancient Records do honour to the country, might not deem the subject unworthy of their consideration.'

We are informed by Mr. T. that he has been occupied eleven years in this undertaking; which was suggested by the reflection that, with the exception of one or two slight references, the northern literature had never been consulted by the English historiographers. For attempting to remedy this omission, we are certainly obliged to him; and though we are not likely to derive much real knowlege by appealing to the Quida or death-song of Ragnar Lodbrog, and other similar fictions, yet, as the early part of our annals is involved with those of the

northern nations, their antiquities may serve in some measure to elucidate our own. Under this impression, the author, after having adverted to the fabulous theories of the north, in which the antiquary has exhibited the most grotesque frost-work, proceeds to consider the political state of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, in the eighth and ninth centuries, with the first aggression of the Northmen on the Anglo-Saxons. Here Mr. T. is required to notice the singular empire of the sea-kings and vikingr of the North, of which he gives the following description:

'In speaking of kings and kingdoms, we use words of swelling sound, and magnificent import. Splendour, extensive dominion, pomp, power, and venerated dignity, are the majestic images which arise in our minds when we hear of thrones. But we must dismiss from our thoughts the fascinating appendages to modern royalty, when we contemplate the petty sovereigns of the north. Some of their kingdoms may have equalled an English county in extent, but many would have been rivalled by our hundreds. If we call to our recollection the regions about the Niger, and survey, in Mr. Parke's narrations, the little potentates he visited, and their simple mansions, we shall have more reasonable notions of the majesty of the Baltic. Seated in their rural halls, with a small band of followers scattered about, these northern Fylki-kings were often victims to any pirate who assailed them. They had neither castles, cities, nor defensive fortifications. Even the Thiod-Kongr, the preponderant ruler, sometimes fell before one of his inferiors whom plunder had enriched.

'When we review these kings and sub-kings of the north, we behold only a part of its political situation. A phenomenon of the most disastrous nature at the same time appeared in the Baltic, which has no parallel in the history of man.

'This was the prevalence of sovereigns who possessed neither country nor subjects, and yet filled every region adjacent with blood and misery. The sea-kings of the north were a race of beings whom Europe beheld with horror. Without a yard of territorial property, without any towns, or visible nation, with no wealth but their ships, no force but their crews, and no hope but from their swords, the sea-kings swarmed upon the boisterous ocean, visited like the fiends of vengeance every district they could approach, and maintained a fearful empire on that element, whose impartial terrors seem to mock the attempt of converting it into kingdoms. Never to sleep under a smoaky roof, nor to indulge in the cheerful cup over a hearth, were the boasts of these watery sovereigns, who not only flourished in the plunder of the sea and its shores, but who sometimes amassed so much booty, and enlisted so many followers, as to be able to assault provinces for permanent conquest. Thus Haki and Hagbard were sea-kings; their reputation induced many bands of rovers to join their fortunes. They attacked the king of Upsal, whom Haki defeated and succeeded. Some years afterwards, the sons of Yngvi, who had become sea-kings, and lived wholly in their war ships, roamed the

ocean

'ocean in search of adventures. They encountered the king of Haley-ia and hanged him. They also assaulted Haki and overpowered him. Solvi was a sea-king, and infested the eastern regions of the Baltic with his depredations. He suddenly landed in Sweden in the night, surrounded the house where the king of Upsal was sleeping, and applying firebrands reduced all who were in it to ashes. Such was the generous warfare of these royal pirates.'

Snorro (here called Snorre) mentions Ivar as having possessed dominion in England: but Mr. T. concludes his examination of the aggressions of the Northmen, by asserting that 'we are fully warranted, by the general tenor of our history, to deny the pretended conquests of any part of England by Ivar or his successors. If any of them approached England before 787, it was but for the purpose of piratical plunder. In the incidents preserved in our annals of the years 787 and 793, we may be confident we behold the full amount of their successes. A landing, a depredation, and a departure, compose all the sovereignty which they obtained in the realms of the Anglo-Saxons, before that disastrous period to which this narration is approaching.'

This period commences with the reign of Ethelwulph. Those of Ethelbert and Ethelred include the expeditions of Ragnar and his sons, with an account of the death of the former, and the revenge taken by the latter; which differs somewhat from the English chronicles:

'Ella at that time commanded in the throne of Deira, and with the force of his kingdom marched up to the fearless Vikingr; a fierce, though unequal conflict ensued. It was a Danish maxim never to refuse the combat, even with the most superior foe. Ragnar, clothed in the garments which he had received from his beloved Aslauga at their parting, four times pierced the ranks of Ella; his friends fell one by one around him, and he at last was taken prisoner alive.

'But Ella knew not the rights of the unfortunate, nor the duties of a conqueror. He obeyed the impulse of barbarian resentment, and doomed his illustrious prisoner to perish with lingering pain in a dungeon, stung by venomous snakes.' *

In 866, the Northern invaders, under the command of Ingwar and Ubbo (the *Ivar* and *Hubba* of the common histories, and here in p. 133 spelt Inguar and Ubba) renewed their hostilities; and in the following spring they obtained a victory over the Northumbrians, when Osbert and Ella, their chiefs, perished. 'The sons of Ragnar inflicted a cruel and inhuman retaliation on Ella for their father's sufferings. They cut the figure of an eagle on his back (Mr. T. should have said, they

* The stories of the *Boat* and the *Dog* are not detailed.

made a spread-eagle of him, by hewing him down the back), divided his ribs to tear out his lungs, and agonized his lacerated flesh by the addition of the saline stimulant.'

The reign of Alfred, whose birth is stated by the present writer as a splendid epoch in the history of human happiness, is narrated at some length. The cause of his flight is particularly investigated; and Mr. T. inclines to believe that Alfred, having offended his people and being deserted by them, was induced to hide himself in the deepest retirement. His literary character is minutely drawn; and the very circumstance of his learning to read calls forth these elaborate reflections:

'To read! it is a simple, infantine occupation. It is a proficiency which even babies can attain. There scarcely lives a being now so miserable who has not acquired the petty qualification. Because it is the first employment of our immature years, and is an attainment almost universal, we think of it so slightly that many may deem it unworthy of being noticed in the history of Alfred. But though it is now an indispensible requisite to every order of society, it was then neglected and despised even in royal and clerical education. The brothers of Alfred, who preceded him on the throne, disdained it. That class of the nation, in whom all the learning of barbarous times concentrates, was in general ignorant of it: and let us not forget that the knowledge of the alphabet is in reality the possession of a fairy wand of most stupendous power. Did a magician offer us by his art to transport us to the busy streets of Athens or of Rome, while Demosthenes harangued, or Socrates taught, or Virgil sang, to make past ages live again, and to revive every character which adorned them; could he pass all the regions of the globe at our pleasure before us, and pour upon our minds all the reasonings of intellect, all the discoveries of philosophy, and all the experience of time; how should we acclaim the magnificent proposal! To learn to read, is to acquire this wonderful faculty. Had Alfred never known the alphabet, he would have known nothing but the thoughts and actions of barbarian Saxons, and ferocious Danes; but possessed of that magical telescope which brought to his view the anterior ages of humanity, and all their immortalized personages, he strove for virtues which he could not else have conceived: he became a model of wisdom and excellence himself, for other generations to resemble.'

Alfred's political conduct is also highly praised by Mr. T., as by most other writers. Among other remarks, however, he is said to have been inflexible in exacting from all a competence for their office: but how does this agree with his elevating the swine-herd, in whose cottage he sought for concealment, to the see of Winchester?

The victory of Alfred's successor, Athelstan, over Anlaf at Brunanburh is minutely detailed. It is usually recorded that, when Athelstan's sword broke in the handle, he was supplied with another by a miracle: but this fabulous statement is put into

into the following plain English by Mr. T.—'Odo, the archbishop of Canterbury, attended the monarch to the battle of Brunanburh, and, hearing of the breaking of the king's sword, immediately supplied the loss.'—The same explanation of a miracle occurs in the life of Dunstan:

'A fever interrupted his advancement, and all the horrors of a temporary frenzy ensued, accompanied with that debility which in this disease sometimes announces the departure of life, and sometimes a crisis which is to end in convalescence. In this state a sudden access of delirium came on. He leapt from his bed, eluded his nurse, and seizing a stick which was near him, he ran over the neighbouring plains and mountains, fancying that wild dogs were pursuing him. His wanderings led him towards night near the church. Workmen, during the day, had been mending the roof. Dunstan ran madly up their scaffold, roamed over the top, and with that casual felicity which frenzy sometimes experiences, he got unconsciously to the bottom of the church, where a heavy sleep concluded his delirious excursion *. He waked with returned intellect, and was naturally surprized at his new situation. As the church doors had not been opened, both he and the attendants of the place wondered how he got there †.'

In surveying the last state of Northern piracy, the author traces the gradual advancement of commerce, which operated to the destruction of this lawless practice:

'The continuance of piracy would be expected to operate as a death-bell to traffic; but wherever profit is seen to glitter, though danger guards every avenue, and the terrific spectre of death even rests upon the idol, men will rush to grasp, though they perish in the effort. Rude as the Northmen were in manners, arts, and virtues, they wanted commodities from each other, which the productive industry or resources of any one place could not supply. Hence skins for cloathing were carried from Iceland to Norway. Fish, cattle,

* 'This is the statement in the MS. Cleop. B. 13. which I think to be peculiarly valuable, because it shews us the simple and natural truth of an incident which the *future* biographers of Dunstan have converted into an elaborate and ridiculous miracle. It gives a good specimen how monastic fancy, by its peculiar machinery, has transformed natural incidents into celestial atchievements. When reflection sobers the mind of Achilles, it is Pallas who descends to whisper in his ear; when Dunstan runs over a church in a delirium, angels are called down to protect him from the devil, to burst the roof, and to place him safely on the pavement.'

† 'This ancient life gives to this event none of those silly appendages of angels and devils, which credulity afterwards added. After mentioning his sleep, it merely says, "Exsurgens autem post momenti spatium ammirari admodum una cum custodibus cœperat quo pacto, quove ingenio introierat, cernens etiam quod templi ostium clausum munitumque extiterat." MS. Cleop.'

and corn, their food, were often, from partial famines, required to be interchanged. Hemp, or seal skins, or whale hides, were needed for ropes. Captives were to be sold, and, of course, slaves to be purchased; besides many articles of war and luxury.

'The necessity of conveying from coast to coast the wanted commodities, turned a part of society into merchants: their places of resort became noted. Thus Tunsberg in Norway was much frequented by merchant ships, which came to it not only from the adjoining Vikia, and the more northern regions, but from Denmark and Saxony. Birca in Sweden was another considerable emporium, in which vessels of merchandize came from all parts of the Baltic to acquire or to exchange the necessaries of life, though its wealth and excellent harbours perpetually invited depredations of the Vikingr. Our Dublin was in those days much frequented for trade.

'It was auspicious to the future predominance of civilized habits that commerce became *honourable*. This circumstance in such an age of general warfare is as remarkable as beneficial. Perhaps the honour attached to commerce arose partly from the Vikingr disposing of their spoils themselves, and partly from the necessity they felt for the objects of traffic. The merchants who ventured to sail through such an ambush of pirates could not at first have been very numerous, and this rarity gave them increased value, and even dignity. In time also kings became their patrons.

'Commerce was, however, in such credit, that Biorn prince of Westfold, the son of Harald Harfragre, became a merchant, and by his more warlike brothers was distinguished by that title. Others also, of illustrious ancestry, were traders, and are mentioned for the affluence acquired by it.

'Traffic being thus respectable, it is no wonder that another circumstance arose which operated to suppress piracy. This was the remarkable fact, that the two professions of pirate and merchant became in many instances to be blended. The same persons were at one time roaming to plunder, at another voyaging to trade: thus the people of Vikia are described as very commercial at the same time that many of them were Vikingr. Thus the friend whom Hakon the Bad had selected to circumvent Olaf the son of Tryggva, had been long a pirate, but he was also a merchant, and was employed to visit Dublin in that capacity. Thus Lodinus, though he had sometimes pirated, was a merchant, and in his mercantile character visited Estland. Biorn, surnamed the Trader, had also practised piracy. Thus the celebrated men of Jomsburg were as eminent for their commercial as for their depredatory activity. It was perhaps from their martial habits and equipments, arising from this alternation of pursuit, that merchants were enabled to combat with the pirates who attacked them. They sometimes secured the success of their defensive exertions by voyaging in companies.'—

'As soon as the Vikingr stooped from the pursuit of sanguinary glory to collect profit from traffic, piracy, as a laudable custom, must have begun to be undermined. It must have received another fatal blow, as soon as agriculture became reputable. Though valour was still the pride of the day, many chiefs were perpetually arising of peaceable

peaceable and unwarlike habits. At the period of which we now speak, one Sigurd Syr, the king, who educated Saint Olave of Norway, is particularly described to us as assiduous in his domestic occupations; who often surveyed his fields and meadows, and flocks and herds, and who was fond of frequenting the places where the handicraft labours were carried on. His pupil, Olave, though in the first part of his life he became a sea king, yet among other things was educated to manual arts as well as warlike exercises. The sweets of landed property and peaceable occupations once experienced, the impulse of nature would urge the chiefs to favour husbandry, and to induce or to compel a part, ever increasing, of the northern population to pursue the labours of the field in preference to war. Every regular and settled monarch favoured the new habit. Though the disorderly reigns which followed Harald Harfragre made his law against pirates almost obsolete, yet as soon as the government of Norway became established in Saint Olave, he revived the prohibition. He forbade all rapine. He enforced his law so rigorously, that though the Vikingr were the children of the most potent chiefs, he punished the offenders by the loss of life or limb: nor could prayers or money avert the penalty. One of the Canutes was equally hostile to the habits of the Vikingr. He prohibited all rapine and violence throughout his kingdom, and was highly displeased that Egill should have pirated in the summer. "In addicting yourself to piracy," said the king, "you have done an abominable thing. It is a Pagan custom, and I forbid it."—

'On the whole we may state, that after the tenth century piracy became discreditable, and that in every succeeding reign it approached nearer to its extinction; until it was completely superseded by the influence of commerce, the firmer establishment of legal governments, improved notions of morality, and the experience of the superior comforts of social order, industry, and peaceful pursuits.'

The reign of Edmund Ironside includes an account, never yet given in English history, of the obscure origin of the famous Earl Godwin; who, during three reigns, possessed a power little less than sovereign;—and the volumes close with the life of Harold the Second, son of Earl Godwin, whose death at the battle of Hastings terminated the Anglo-Saxon dynasty, and transferred the English sceptre to the Norman race. Here Mr. T. appeals to the tapestry of Bayeux as an historic document: but it can only be regarded as *ex parte* evidence, or the picture which William and his followers were desirous of transmitting to posterity.—The description of Harold's conflict with the Norman conqueror concludes with these remarks:

'Though Harold had fallen, the great strength of the country was untouched. It had however happened, that Harold's brothers, whose influence might have soon created a new army, perished before him. No heir was in the country to whom the crown could be given. There was no chief of enterprize like Harold, who was disposed to seize the dignity, and to appeal to the country for its support. Wil-

liam therefore, after his victory, found a vacant throne, and a country without a leader. His own claims were plausible. The venerated ruler of their religious feelings had sanctified them by his approbation. He had professed to fight the cause of God. He was recommended by the merit of a brilliant victory. He was accordingly permitted to march quietly to the crown, and it was placed on his head before opposition could be embodied to prevent it.

'Shall we not say that William's enterprize succeeded against all probability; and that chance, or rather Providence, was the agent which enthroned him?'

These extracts will enable the reader to form some judgment of the general execution of this history; which the author, in the conclusion of his preface, appears to contemplate with self gratulation. We shall hope to escape the heavy charge of 'malignant detraction' (a singular version of *obtrectandi studio*), and even the lighter one of *a desire of finding fault* (a translation which Mr. T. might have adopted), if we remark that some errors remain to be corrected, and that the style is often inelegant and inflated. In Vol. II. p. 97. the author says; 'In some, the fairy flower never rises from its seed-bud, till the scenes of life have nearly passed through all their mutations; then too late in its vegetation, doomed to know no more the genial spring of youth, or the ripening season of manhood, it pines with debility through the dreary evenings of the remaining life, till death's chilling winter annihilates its vitality.' At p. 140, we have a 'depthless whirlpool.' At p. 169, we have not only 'a momentary obscuration which lasts only while we gaze,' but an 'Alpine chain of obstacles.'—P. 180, 'the moving ice-rock of the pole intimidates strength into imbecility.' P. 191, Alfred is said to have 'coerced with irritability.' P. 217, in a note, Mr. T. adds, 'the scite of Luna is unknown;' though, by turning to Cellarius, he would have found it thus described: "*Luna, vetus opidum, ad ripam Macræ sinistram, haud procul a mari.*"* P. 234, 'there is a vivaciousness in his despair.'—The circumstance of Edward having been twice married is thus narrated: 'He was twice a candidate for that endearing felicity which the connubial union never fails to reciprocate between amiable hearts and well instructed minds,'—and death is expressed by a variety of periphrases.

On the whole, however, Mr. Turner is intitled to thanks and to praise; and his work may be consulted with advantage by future historians. In a second edition, we trust that it will in every respect undergo that revision which may do full honour to the author.

* In Persius, Sat. VI., which was written at the port of *Luna*, this line is quoted from Ennius;

"*Lunai portum, est operæ cognoscere, cives.*"

Art.

ART. IX. *History of the British Expedition to Egypt;* to which is subjoined, a Sketch of the present State of that Country, and its Means of Defence. By Robert Thomas Wilson, Lieutenant-Colonel of Cavalry in his Britannic Majesty's Service, and Knight of the Imperial Military Order of Maria Theresa. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Egerton. 1802.

AMID the variety of historical works which now enrich the literature of this country, every class of readers may meet with full gratification. The taste of the philosopher, the politician, and the soldier, is almost exclusively consulted in different publications; and to this diversity, the eventful period, through which we have lately passed, is particularly favourable. The volume before us, which we announced in our number for October last, p. 172, 174, will hold a distinguished place among the military journals of the brilliant campaign in Egypt; both from the distinctness of its details, and from the criticisms which the author has bestowed on some French accounts of the same transactions. The style of the performance, indeed, is not unexceptionable: but the work cannot fail to meet with a favourable reception, as a plain narrative, given by an eye-witness, of facts which do honour to our country. Sir R. Wilson says, in his preface,

'As to the contents, I solemnly declare to the British nation, that I have endeavoured to relate a faithful narrative of a campaign, which, combined with the naval victories, and their own magnanimity, have elevated the glory of our country to the proudest altitude. Nor should England pride herself alone on the military services of the Egyptian army; throughout the war her troops have fought with equal gallantry: but she may also boast that the moral conduct of that army has exalted her fame on a foundation more durable than victory, erecting her monuments of honour upon the gratitude and admiration of mankind.'

We could dwell with pleasure on every part of this narration: but the facts are too recent, and too fully in possession of the public mind, to render such minuteness desireable. The details of the memorable 21st of March, however, will always be read with delight; and, in the present author's representation, much of the scene actually passes before our eyes;

'On the memorable 21st of March the army as usual was under arms at three o'clock in the morning; all was quiet till half past three o'clock, when the report of a musquet was heard at the extremity of the left. Instantly afterwards a cannon fired, scattered musquetry succeeded, and then two more guns. For a moment attention was directed to that quarter. All were convinced that a general attack was commencing, but it was immediately evident that the firing was too feeble on the left to believe *that* to be the point of

of the enemy's serious object. Indeed this was the universal sentiment; and General Moore, who as general officer of the night, on the first alarm proceeded to the left, was so impressed with this idea, that he turned back to the right.

'For a few minutes all was still; but it was the awful suspense of anxious expectation, not of apprehension. Every eye was painfully extended forwards through the gloomy mist of the atmosphere, and the ears strained to catch the smallest sound. Occasionally the eastern horizon was anxiously regarded; but though the grey of the morning was perceptible, it seemed reluctantly to break. On a sudden, loud shouts were heard in front of the right, which fully certified the enemy's intention, a roar of musquetry immediately succeeded, and the action there became general.

'The enemy, covered by the unequal surface of the ground, had advanced unperceived as far as the videttes, and continued to press on with them and the retiring piquets of infantry to the main position with all possible celerity; one column directed itself upon the ruins where the 58th were posted, the front of which was considerably more extensive than the front of the regiment; but some parts of the wall still standing, it admitted of the regiment's dividing itself, but scarcely notwithstanding did the troops fill up the different openings. Colonel Houston, who commanded, faintly perceived the column of the enemy advancing with beat of drums and huzzas; but fearing lest the English piquets might be preceding, he allowed it to approach so close that the glazed hats were clearly distinguished, when he ordered the grenadiers to fire, which was followed by the whole regiment, and repeated with several rounds. These continued and well directed discharges not only checked but made the enemy's column retire quickly into a hollow some distance in their rear, when it shortly afterwards wheeled to the right, and endeavoured to force round the redoubt in front of its left, with another column, directing its march upon the battery. The 28th regiment stationed there opened a heavy fire on that part of the enemy which attempted to storm the redoubt in front; but the main body of the two columns now joined to a third, forced in behind the redoubt, and whilst some remained to attack it thus in the rear, the rest penetrated into the ruins. Colonel Crowdjye, who commanded the left of the 58th, observing their advance through the openings, wheeled back two companies, and after two or three rounds of fire advanced on the enemy with the bayonet. At this instant the 23d regiment appeared to support, having moved for that purpose from its station, and the 42d also advancing on the exterior side of the ruins to cover the opening on the left of the redoubt, so cut off the troops which had entered, that after a severe loss they were obliged to surrender. The 28th regiment had presented, as well as the 58th, the extraordinary spectacle of troops fighting at the same time to the front, flanks, and rear. Although thus surrounded, the 28th regiment remained fixed to the platform of the parapet, and preserving its order continued a contest unexampled before this day. Colonel Chambers had the honour of commanding, Colonel Paget having been wounded at the commencement of the action. The advance of

the 42d relieved the 28th for a moment from this unequal attack; but as that regiment approached the right of the redoubt, the first line of the enemy's cavalry, passing by the left of the redoubt, floundering over the tents and in the holes dug in the encampment of the 28th regiment, charged en masse, and overwhelmed the 42d; yet, though broken, this gallant corps was not defeated; individually it resisted, and the conduct of each man exalted still more the high character of the regiment. Colonel Spencer, who with the flank companies of the 40th had taken his station in the intervals of the ruins, was for some seconds afraid to order his men to fire, lest he should destroy the 42d, so intermixed with the enemy. But the cavalry passing on, and directing itself against that interval, he was obliged to command the firing, which stopped the cavalry's advance; yet such a feeble force must instantly have been overpowered, if at this critical moment General Stuart, with the foreign brigade from the second line, had not advanced in the most perfect order, and poured in such a heavy and well directed fire that nothing could withsthand it, and the enemy fled or perished. It was in this charge of the cavalry that the gallant Sir Ralph Abercrombie, always anxious to be the most forward in danger, received his mortal wound. On the first alarm he had mounted his horse, and finding the right was seriously engaged, proceeded thither. When he came near the ruins, he dispatched his aids de camp with some orders to different brigades, and whilst thus alone some dragoons of the French cavalry penetrated to the spot, and he was thrown from his horse. One of them, from the tassel of his sword supposed to be an officer, then rode at him, and attempted to cut him down; but just as the point of the sword was falling, his natural heroism, and the energy of the moment, so invigorated the veteran general, that he seized the sword, and wrested it from the hand; at that instant the officer was bayoneted by a soldier of the 42d. Sir Ralph Abercrombie did not know the moment of his receiving the wound in the thigh, but complained severely of the contusion in his breast, supposed to be given by the hilt of the sword in the scuffle. Sir Sydney Smith was the first officer who came to Sir Ralph, and who by an accident had broke his own sword, which Sir Ralph observing, he instantly presented to him the one he had so gloriously acquired *.

'Sir Ralph, as the cavalry was by this time repulsed, walked to the redoubt on the right of the Guards, from which he could command a view of the whole field of battle. The French, although driven out of the camp, by no means gave up the contest on the right. A second charge of cavalry was attempted by their reserve

* This sword Sir Sydney Smith means to place on his monument. A singular circumstance happened almost immediately afterwards. Major Hall, aid-de-camp to General Craddock, whilst going with orders had his horse killed. Seeing Sir Sydney, he begged to mount his orderly man's horse. As Sir Sydney was turning round to bid him give it to Major Hall, a cannon-ball struck off the dragoon's head. "This," exclaimed Sir Sydney, "is destiny. The horse, Major Hall, is your's."

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against the foreign brigade, but completely failed. After this their infantry did not keep any longer in a body, but acted *en tirailleur*, except that a battalion maintained still a little fleche in front of the redoubt, on each flank of which Republican colours were planted.

'The ammunition of the English was by this time totally exhausted, and the regiments of the reserve were obliged to remain without firing a shot, some not having one round left, and for a time there was only one cartouch for the guns in the battery. Whilst such was the state of the contest on the right, the attack on the centre had also continued. As soon as day dawned, a column of grenadiers had advanced, supported by a heavy line of infantry, to the assault of this part of the position. The Guards posted there at first threw out their flankers to oppose them, but these being driven in, when the column approached very near, General Ludlow directed the brigade to fire, which they did with the greatest precision. The French General seeing the echellon formation, had advanced to turn the left flank of the Guards, but the officer commanding there wheeled back instantly some companies, which checked their movement, and the advance of General Coote with his brigade compelled them to retreat. Finding this effort ineffectual, they then dispersed as sharp shooters, and kept up a very destructive fire, at the same time that the French cannon played incessantly. The left of the British was never seriously engaged; it was only exposed to partial musquetry, and a distant cannonade. The French on the right, during the want of ammunition amongst the British, had attempted to approach again close to the redoubt, and some of them also having exhausted their's, absolutely pelted stones from the ditch at the 28th, who returned these unusual, yet not altogether harmless instruments of violence, as a serjeant of the 28th was killed by one breaking through his forehead; but the grenadier company of the 40th moving out, the assailants ran away, the sharp shooters in front left the hollows they were covered by, and the battalion also evacuated the fleche.

'At length General Menou finding that every one of his movements had failed, and that the British lines had suffered no serious impression to justify the hopes of an eventual success, determined on a retreat. His lines retired in very good order, under the heights of their position; but fortunately for them, there was such a want on the part of the English of ammunition, otherwise the slaughter would at least have been double, as the ground they had to pass over presented a glacis for the farthest range of shot. As it was, the cannon on the left did much execution, and also the king's cutters on the right, which had during the whole action most gallantly remained in their station, although exposed to a body of the enemy within half musket shot, expressly firing at them, and who had the advantage of a considerable elevation. A corps of French cavalry, posted at the bridge on the canal of Alexandria, to protect the right flanks of their lines, and to prevent a movement from the British left, deserves equally to be mentioned for the steadiness with which it maintained its ground, although the shot plunged constantly into the ranks. At about ten o'clock, A. M. the action ceased; but it was not till the defeat of

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the French was thus absolutely assured that Sir Ralph Abercrombie, who had remained in the battery, and where several times he had nearly been killed by cannon shot, could be prevailed upon to quit the field. He had continued walking about, paying no attention to his wound, only occasionally complaining of a pain in his breast from the contusion. Officers who went to him in the course of the action, returned without knowing from his manner or appearance that he had been wounded, and many only ascertained it by seeing the blood trickling down his clothes. At last his spirit, when exertion was no longer necessary, yielded to nature; he became faint, was placed in a hammock, and borne to the depôt, cheered by the feeling expressions and blessings of the soldiers as he passed: he was then put into a boat, accompanied by his aid-de-camp and esteemed friend, Sir Thomas Dyer, and carried to Lord Keith's ship.'

Sir R. Wilson is not a mere journalist: for he comments on the actions which he has to relate, in a manner which must be highly instructive to military readers. He observes that General Menou sacrificed all the advantages of his position, to his presumption in attacking the British army on this important day; and on General Regnier, he is still more severe.

'General Regnier (he says) will not find an universal sentiment of approbation as to the conduct of the French right on that day in his own army. The most distinguished officers have coincided with what was apparent to the English, that the right did not support at any moment (and there were some advantageous opportunities) the exertions of the left, or cover its discomfitures. But perhaps the Gazette account, which states that the French right was always kept refused, has goaded General Regnier, who commanded it, and who thus without equal foundation retorts. General Menou directed the right to be thrown back only until the left and centre were warmly engaged; and even if his orders were not so explicit, General Regnier must know, that in an attacking army no positive arrangement can be made, and that a General must and should act frequently on his own responsibility, from momentary circumstances. It is in vain he attempts to detract from the honour of this victory, nor will his misrepresentation of the 42d regiment, crouching *ventre à terre* under the cavalry, find credit any where, since the bravery of the Scottish regiment has this war been too frequently witnessed. With more implicit faith will it, however, be believed, that many of the French troops were in a state of intoxication, a habit which has been too frequent this war, and which originates in the issue of spirits always before a pre-arranged attack. But no excuse can be formed for the officers, one of whom, and of rank, was so tipsy when taken, as to be the object of general derision. It must, however, be stated, that the conduct of the French soldiers, whatever might be the incitement, was extremely gallant, and amongst the wounded, several traits of heroism were displayed.'

These observations, however, though important with respect to military facts, are absorbed in the display of atrocity which

which Sir Robert, in common with other writers, exhibits against the former Commander in Chief of the French Army. We allude to the murder of the Turkish Garrison of Jaffa, and the poisoning of the diseased among his own troops. Respecting the former point, among other statements, the author says;

'Such a fact should not, however, be alledged without some proof, or leading circumstance stronger than assertion being produced to support it; but there would be a want of generosity in naming individuals, and branding them to the latest posterity with infamy for obeying a command when their submission became an act of necessity, since the whole army did not mutiny against the execution; therefore to establish further the authenticity of the relation, this only can be mentioned, that it was Bonn's division which fired, and thus every one is afforded the opportunity of satisfying themselves respecting the truth, by enquiring of officers serving in the different brigades composing this division.'

With regard to the poisoning of the sick, having related the refusal of the physician who was first charged with the execution of this horrid crime, and its subsequent accomplishment by an apothecary, Sir Robert observes:

'If a doubt should still exist as to the veracity of this statement, let the members of the Institute at Cairo be asked what passed in their sitting after the return of Bonaparte from Syria: they will relate that the same virtuous physician, who refused to become the destroyer of those committed to his protection, accused Bonaparte of high treason in the full assembly, against the honour of France, her children, and humanity; that he entered into the full details of the poisoning of the sick, and the massacre of the garrison, aggravating these crimes by charging Bonaparte with strangling, previously at Rosetta, a number of French and Copts, who were ill of the plague; thus proving that this disposal of his sick was a premeditated plan, which he wished to introduce into general practice. In vain Bonaparte attempted to justify himself; * the members sat petrified with terror, and almost doubted whether the scene passing before their

'* Bonaparte pleaded that he ordered the garrison to be destroyed, because he had not provisions to maintain them, or strength enough to guard them: and that it was evident if they escaped, they would act against the French, since amongst the prisoners were five hundred of the garrison of El Arish, who had promised not to serve again, (they had been compelled in passing through Jaffa by the commandant to serve); and that he destroyed the sick to prevent contagion, and save themselves from falling into the hands of the Turks; but these arguments, however specious, were refuted directly, and Bonaparte was at last obliged to rest his defence on the positions of Machiavel. When he afterwards left Egypt, the Scavans were so angry at being left behind, contrary to promise, that they elected the physician president of the Institute; an act which spoke for itself fully.'

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eyes was not illusion. Assuredly all these proceedings will not be found in the minutes of the Institute; no, Bonaparte's policy foresaw the danger, and power produced the erasure; but let no man, calculating on the force of circumstances which may prevent such an avowal as is solicited, presume on this to deny the whole: there are records which remain, and which in due season will be produced. In the interim, this representation will be sufficient to stimulate enquiry; and, Frenchmen, your honour is indeed interested in the examination.'

It is a subject of national pride, almost equal to that derived from the gallant atchievements of our troops, that the natives of Egypt manifested as decided a confidence in the good intentions and good conduct of the British Army, as they exhibited a confirmed detestation of the French.—An English soldier, when separated by any accident from his corps, was succoured and conducted to his post by the inhabitants; while a Frenchman could scarcely stir out of musquet-shot from his comrades, without danger of being put to death.

The affair of Rhamanieh is copiously detailed; and the author seems to hint the possibility that the whole of the French force in that post might have been induced to surrender, by a more vigorous attack. The advantage was obtained, however, on easier terms than might have been previously expected.

After all the descriptions which have been given of those stupendous monuments, the pyramids, we were pleased with the account of the impression which they made on the minds of our private soldiers:

'To relieve the *ennui* which the present indolent state of the army produced, and particularly as no permission was given to enter into Cairo, the Pyramids, distant only about four miles, had become the constant subject of occupation; and the very soldiers in going there, seemed to find a recompence for many of their toils, to exult more in their triumphs, and feel the enjoyment which travellers must experience on attaining the ultimate object of their research. Their minds aggrandised with honest pride, and honourable reflections.

'The Pyramids, which are consecrated from the most remote antiquity, as forming one of the seven wonders of the world, at a distance impose neither awe nor any idea of stupendous magnificence: they are situated on the immediate borders of the Desert, which elevates itself like a cliff above the cultivated country: their form, if one of the objects of their construction was to excite surprise at their grandeur and altitude, was the worst which could be conceived, but when arrived at the very base of the great Pyramid, then its wonders require positive vision to credit. The mind is lost in the calculation, and the eye unaccustomed to such masses, cannot imagine to itself such dimensions. The vastness of the granite blocks, the quantity of labour which must have been employed, the lever which must have

have been necessary to raise such stupendous masses of rock, its original beauty from the various coloured marbles, porphyry and granite, with which the sides have been cased, impress with unequalled sentiments of admiration and astonishment. When, however, reflection directs the thought to the surprising works of genius and learning of those ages in which these were constructed, and contrasts the present abject race of their posterity, the mind cannot but lament the degradation of such a portion of human nature, and consider the Pyramids as a monument for melancholy instruction.'

On the summit of the large pyramid, the name of Algernon Sydney is engraved.

The description of Cairo is very curious, and corrects the romantic ideas with which the early reading of most literary men inspires them. The surrender of Cairo, garrisoned by 10,000 French troops, to a much inferior force, engages the author in some discussions; in which, though he does not explicitly declare his opinion, it is evident that he considers the prize as easily obtained.

We should have wished to extract the account of Colonel Loyd's perilous march across the desart with a detachment of British troops: but we have already made so free with the contents of this interesting volume, that we must hasten to conclude our view of it.

The blockade and surrender of Alexandria occupy the remaining part of the book. A particular description of the works of this place is given, which proves that their real strength was much inferior to their imposing appearance: but this could not be known till we had gained possession of the town.

In an appendix, containing various official papers, &c. Sir R. Wilson mentions several curious particulars respecting the plague. He denies that it is contagious; an opinion which ought to be received with great caution; and which perhaps only results from the effects of the cleanliness and discipline of our troops in preventing the communication of infection. We learn with regret that Dr. White, an English physician, fell a victim to a series of experiments on the inoculation of the plague; a hopeless speculation.

We feel much pleasure in recommending the perusal of this work to our readers. It is decorated with a portrait of Sir Ralph Abercromby, and Maps: but it is deficient, in having neither index nor table of contents.

Other narratives of this expedition, by Lieutenant Anderson and Captain Walsh, are before us, and will speedily be introduced to our readers.

ART.

ART. X. *Essays on Miscellaneous Subjects.* By Sir John Sinclair, Bart. 8vo. pp. 467. 8s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

OF all the kinds of ambition which fire the human breast, that is intitled to the highest praise which prompts us to seek fame by exertions directed to the benefit of our fellow-creatures. Every noble mind will feel it to be its duty to extend its regard beyond the narrow circle of selfish gratification, and will count that life to have been spent in vain which has not been, more or less, devoted to public utility. Men of this stamp will seek their chief pleasure in the discharge of social duties; and the labour of doing good will be preferred by them to sordid and sensual gratification. In proportion to the diffusion of this sentiment through the individuals which compose the superior classes of a state, will be the chance of its progress in improvement; it is therefore of infinite importance for men of rank and influence to set examples of active virtue, and to evince by their conduct a real and predominant solicitude for the comfort and happiness of the general mass of society. When, however, luxury and dissipation prevail, when the mode of living is generally artificial and refined, the nerve of social virtue among the great becomes relaxed, the case of the inferior orders excites no lively interest, and the poor are abandoned *to the care of Providence.* We are happy in meeting with every exception to the truth of this remark; and it is some consolation to know that there are exceptions, among which we may venture to reckon the Author of these essays. National improvement, extending even to the cottage and its comforts, has been with him a favourite object; he has laboured to advance it; and whenever he quits the theatre of this life, we think that he may demand, like Augustus, to be dismissed with applause. We do not mean by this commendation to espouse all Sir John Sinclair's sentiments and measures, but merely to express our sincere approbation of his general conduct, and of the liberal and patriotic tendency of his writings.

The subjects discussed in the volume before us are of great national importance; and they derive, if possible, additional interest from the manner in which this intelligent Baronet has exhibited them. The first Essay, intitled, *Observations on the Nature and Advantages of Statistical Inquiries; with a Sketch of an Introduction to the proposed Analysis of the Statistical Account of Scotland*; is intended to explain the use to which the author purposed to apply the materials contained in the Statistical Reports of all the Parishes in Scotland, published in 21 volumes 8vo; and it gives an enumeration of the sources of human happiness, under the general heads,—Animal, or Indi-

vidual Pleasures,—Social Gratifications,—and Mental Enjoyments;—the first including Food, Clothing, and Shelter;—the second, Family Connexion and Personal Friendship, Marriage, Property, Useful Occupations, and Political Institutions;—and the last embracing the Exercise of the Mental Faculties, and the Pleasures resulting from Religious and Moral Exertions. As it is evident that these blessings are best enjoyed in a civilized state, the author proceeds to consider the Means of extending the advantages of Political Society and the blessings of Human Life. Here he contends for the necessity of Legislators being minutely acquainted with the state of the country which they are desirous of improving:

'Without a knowledge of facts, connected with any intended alteration in the laws, or in the political establishments of a state, how is it possible to judge whether the change can be brought about, without inconvenience or to much advantage? For the important purpose of legislation, therefore, inquiries on a great scale are essential. Real patriots, and practical statesmen, can be no longer satisfied with partial and defective views of the situation of a country, but must wish to know the actual state of its agriculture, its manufactures, and its commerce, and the means of improvement of which they are respectively capable;—the amount of the population of a state, and the causes of its increase or decrease;—the manner in which the territory of a country is possessed and cultivated;—the nature and amount of the various productions of the soil;—the value of the personal wealth or stock of the inhabitants, and how it can be augmented;—the diseases to which the people are subject, their causes and their cure;—the occupations of the people,—in what cases they are entitled to encouragement, and where they ought to be suppresed;—the condition of the poor, the best mode of exciting their industry, and furnishing them with employment;—the state of schools, and other institutions founded for the purposes of public utility;—the state of villages and towns, and the regulations best calculated for their police and government;—and above all the state of the manners, the morals, and the religious principles of the people; and the means by which their temporal and eternal interests can best be promoted.

'I know that some political authors have maintained very opposite principles, and contend that matters should be left to themselves, that things will always find their own level, or, in other words, that a government should think of nothing but of war, of foreign intrigues, and of internal taxation: and I am ready to confess, that much benefit cannot be expected from any information thus accumulated, unless the rulers of a nation are not only able men, and well disposed to promote the happiness of the people, but that the frame of the government is such, as to impose proper checks upon those who govern, otherwise almost every information thus obtained, may not merely be lost, but may, in the progress of human affairs, be perverted to the worst of purposes. But the principle that I maintain

is this, that as no individual can improve his private property, without knowing exactly its extent, the soil of which it consists, the number of farmers by whom it is occupied, the state of the buildings erected on it, the crops which it is capable of producing, the best means of cultivating it, &c. &c. &c. neither can any government improve a country, nor better the situation of its inhabitants, without entering into minute inquiries of a similar nature, for the purpose of at least removing all obstacles to improvement. For what is a nation but a great estate? What is a country but a large farm? and the same principles which are applicable to the improvement of the one, must necessarily be calculated to promote the interests and happiness of the other.

'If, therefore, a wise and truly beneficent government, were desirous of promoting the happiness of the country over which it is placed, its wishes could not be properly attained, without a laborious and extensive inquiry into the state of the country, and the means by which it might be improved; and if we were to suppose, that the facts necessary to enable any government to judge what measures it ought to attempt, were once collected, it would probably be desirous of having them arranged, nearly in the following order.

'The first part would naturally state the *geographical circumstances of the country*, its situation, extent, soil, climate, divisions, advantages natural and incidental, and other points of a similar nature.

'The second object would be to ascertain *the population of the country*, comparing the present with the former state of its population, explaining the causes of its increase or decrease in the different districts, pointing out the manner in which the people were divided, according to their sex, age, professions, and other particulars.

'The third point would be to discover *how the people acquire the means of their subsistence*, to what extent they depended on agriculture, fisheries, manufactures, or commerce, and what were the indirect sources of income on which they relied.

'The next point would naturally be to inquire into *the laws and public establishments of the country*, and to see how far they were capable of improvement; how the people were governed; what checks there were to prevent bad government or oppression; whence arose the public revenue; how the laws were administered; how the sanctions of religion were observed; how the health of the people was watched over; and what institutions were established for the education of youth, and other public purposes.

'There are also many *miscellaneous objects of inquiry* which such a government would be desirous of having under their view, namely, the language of the people, the arts and sciences cultivated by them, their morals, manners, customs, &c.

'And if all these important particulars were laid before a wise and beneficent government, in one connected report, drawn up on proper data; permit me to ask, would there be any difficulty for them to ascertain the ultimate object of the whole inquiry, namely, *how the interest of their nation could best be promoted*, and how the general state and circumstances of the people could best be improved?'

The plan which Sir John purposes to follow, if his health and other circumstances will permit, in arranging the materials of the Statistical Reports of Scotland, nearly resembles that which has been adopted in the County Surveys made under the direction of the Board of Agriculture.

Essay II. consists of *Observations on the Means of enabling a Cottager to keep a Cow, by the Produce of a small Portion of arable Land.*—We have so often stated our opinion of the national policy of encouraging the Poor in the Cottage mode of life, that it is unnecessary to specify our approbation of this part of the author's labours. He was induced, he informs us, to draw up this paper by a premium offered by the Board of Agriculture, 'to each of five persons who shall, in the most satisfactory manner, prove by experiment, the practicability of Cottagers being enabled to keep one or two milch cows, on the produce of land cultivated with the spade and hoe only, and who shall send to the Board, on or before the 1st of January, 1803, the best accounts of such experiments, detailing,

'1. The expence of erecting the cottage, shed, and any other building thought necessary.

'2. The expence of providing the stock and tools necessary.

'3. The extent of land, and nature of the soil occupied.

'4. The expence of digging and fencing the land.

'5. The rent, taxes, &c. paid for the same by the cottager.

'6. The course of cropping that has been adopted.

'7. The quantity and value of each of the different crops.

'8. How the cottager and his family are maintained, and how they manage to cultivate the ground, and to harvest the different crops?

'9. How the cow is maintained during the year, and what profit is derived from it?

'10. What profit is derived from pigs, poultry, and other articles?

'11. How many days they were enabled to labour for other people? and,

'12. How, on the whole, the plan has been found to answer?'

The object of the writer is to prove that the cottage system is applicable to arable as well as to grazing districts. For the detailed observations, we must refer to the essay, which thus admirably terminates:

'I shall conclude with asking, if any one can figure to himself a more delightful spectacle, than to see an industrious cottager, his busy wife, and healthy family, living in a comfortable house, rented by himself, cultivating their little territory with their own hands, and enjoying the profits arising from their own labour and industry?

or whether it is possible for a generous landholder to employ his property with more satisfaction, or in a manner more likely to promote, not only his own, but the public interest, than by endeavouring to increase the number of such cottagers, and encouraging, by every means in his power, the exertions of so meritorious, and so important a class of the community?'

Essay III. *Hints as to the Advantages of Old Pastures, and on the Conversion of Grass Lands into Tillage.*—These remarks, we apprehend, have appeared in Vol. III. Part I. of Communications to the Board of Agriculture, the whole of which was devoted to this subject. See M. R. Vol. xxxix. N. S. p. 59.

Essay IV., intitled *Hints regarding Cattle*, offers many judicious remarks on the principles to be adopted in breeding cattle: 'the result of which is that cattle ought to be,

'1. Of a moderate size, unless where the food is of a nature peculiarly forcing.

'2. Of a shape the most likely to yield profit to the farmer.

'3. Of a docile disposition, without being deficient in spirit.

'4. Hardy, and not liable to disease.

'5. Easily maintained, and on food not of a costly nature.

'6. Arriving soon at maturity.

'7. Producing considerable quantities of milk.

'8. Having flesh of an excellent quality.

'9. Having a tendency to take on fat.

'10. Having a valuable hide; and,

'Lastly, Calculated (should it be judged necessary) for working.'

An Appendix is added, on the different kinds of Cattle Farms, which is also replete with information. We can only purloin from it the following note relative to butter and cheese:

'Though fresh butter must be made with great care, yet salt butter requires, if possible, still greater attention, as it must be calculated for preservation; and though salt is indispensable for that purpose, yet if the butter is properly prepared, and the salt properly mixed, the quantity required is not considerable. It is said that the butter made in the months of May, June, July, and August, is the fittest for salting; and that butter made in the latter part of the season will not take salt so well. In regard to cheese, in order to make it rich, they sometimes mix fine tallow with it, and sometimes butter; the latter mode is practised in the northern parts of Scotland. Sometimes also, farmers, in the northern parts of England, make what are called *egg cheeses*, which are famous for toasting. After the curd is thoroughly prepared, they make this cheese, by putting five yolks of eggs to every pound of curd, mixing the whole properly, and putting it into the cheese-press as usual. As to whey, it is sometimes used for making butter, sometimes for feeding swine or calves, and sometimes prepared in the north of England, in the following manner.

The whey is put into a kettle or pot on a smartish fire, and when it is near boiling, some butter-milk is put into it, which is skimmed off, as soon as any curd seems to be formed on the top of the whey, some butter-milk is then again put in, and so on, from time to time, as long as any curds will arise. This substance is called *whey curds*, may be eat with cream or milk, and is not unpalatable diet. The whey that remains from this curd, is commonly called *whig*, and when kept until it is sour, and two or three sprigs of mint put into it, many are of opinion that it makes a pleasant liquor, particularly in hot weather.'

Essay V. *On the Improvement of British Wool;* containing the Substance of an Address to a Society constituted at Edinburgh for that purpose, 31st Jan. 1791.—This address, published soon after its delivery, is here reprinted with some alterations.

The VIth Essay, containing an *Address to the Board of Agriculture on the Cultivation and Improvement of the Waste Lands of the Kingdom;* presented to the Board, by Sir John Sinclair (then President), on the 17th November 1795; and,

The VIIth., *Substance of a Speech in a Committee of the whole House, on the Means of improving the System of Private Bills of Inclosure, and the Resolutions of the Select Committee on that Subject;* have been also previously offered to the public.

Essay VIII. *Hints regarding certain Measures calculated to improve an extensive Property, more especially applicable to an Estate in the Northern Parts of Scotland.*—"Self-love and social" are combined in the schemes here suggested. The author, having an estate of considerable extent (above 100,000 acres) in Caithness, the northernmost county of Scotland, has very properly bent his attention to its improvement; and he throws out hints for the consideration of Government as well as of the inhabitants, by which the productiveness and riches of this remote part of the island would be greatly increased. We are presented with a plan of a Farm-house and Offices which he has erected on one of his estates in this county, and with the plan of the *New Town* of Thurso *now building*, which is intended to contain 300 houses, with a new Church, Hospital, Town-house, Markets, &c. While the Baronet is making these exertions, he intimates that he ought to be assisted by the co-operation of government, in the extension of the road from Inverness to Thurso, including the erection of bridges, in order that an uninterrupted communication may be opened with the metropolis and every other part of the island. Under the heads of Agriculture and Miscellaneous Improvements, he enumerates the capabilities of the county.—As it has been intimated in some of the public prints that Sir John Sinclair's

plans

plans have contributed to depopulate this northern district of the Empire, it is but justice to make an extract from which the reader may judge how far Sir John has been accused with reason:

'The great difficulty in carrying on the improvement of the property I am converting into a sheep farm, arose from the circumstance of its being occupied by 80 small farmers, who did not pay in all above 250*l. per annum.* Nothing could be more absurd than to suffer such an extensive and valuable district to be employed almost in nothing but in breeding an inconsiderable number of cattle, and feeding some red deer, who wandered about the upper parts of the estate. Humanity however required, that above 500 individuals, who inhabited the estate, should not be driven from their ancient possessions, without having some other means of subsistence pointed out to them: hence it was necessary to proceed with caution in extending the farm, and to form some liberal plan to provide for the people. The following measure was at last adopted for that purpose,—that of giving two Scotch acres of arable land, or at least fit to be made arable, with a house and garden, to each of those little farmers, under the name of "*Cottage Farms,*" the proprietor becoming bound to employ them for 100, 200, or 300 days in the year, as the cottager chose, paying the labourer so much grain, and so much money, in proportion to the number of days agreed upon; and thus the cottager, in a manner, received rent from the landlord instead of paying any. No plan could succeed better than this has hitherto done. It required not only the labour of these cottagers to carry on a variety of improvements essential in an extensive tract of country, formerly almost in a state of nature, but it was necessary to employ a number of experienced labourers from other places to assist them, whose example has been of much use. I soon found that the plan was admirably suited to the temper and spirit of the Highlander, who was not fond of constant labour, but had no objection to work for a certain number of days, provided he had the remainder of his time free and uncontrouled. By adopting this plan, every possible means was taken neither to diminish the number, nor to crush the spirit of a brave and hardy race of men, whose services in war might be so eminently useful; whilst at the same time a habit of industry was introduced among them, far beyond the expectations of those who were best acquainted with that property in its former state, when hardly a single labourer could be procured in it *. Measures were also taken for furnishing the women with

'* After much consideration of the subject, I have no hesitation in stating, that this is by far the best plan to adopt, for improving, without depopulating the country, a highland estate, and introducing industry among its inhabitants. I have already got from 30 to 40 labourers established on this footing, where formerly scarcely one could be procured on any terms. Where the land they occupy is arable, they pay a moderate rent; and where it was in a waste state, they have it for five or seven years for nothing, besides having

with employment: a number of spinning-wheels were distributed among them, made by wheel-wrights who were set up for that purpose, and who have also undertaken to distribute flax to be spun, intrusted to their care by Messrs. Mill, Cruden, and Co., a respectable manufacturing company at Aberdeen. The whole is certainly an operose and complicated system; but as it has completely answered in this instance, I cannot too strongly recommend the adoption of a similar plan to the attention of those who may be desirous of improving a Highland estate, without depopulating their country.'

Essay IX. *Account of the Origin of the Board of Agriculture, and its Progress for three Years after its Establishment.* Originally drawn up in 1796.—This paper, including the Appendices, occupies a considerable portion of the volume, and contains many curious particulars. Without claiming any merit for the original idea, Sir John informs us that the plan of erecting a Board of Agriculture presented itself to him in consequence of a glance which he took of the state of the Northern parts of Europe, in the course of a *rapid* journey through them in the year 1786 (7,500 English miles were run over in about seven months and a half). 'I returned, (says he,) full of ardour to establish, in my own country, all the beneficial institutions which are scattered over others, especially those of an agricultural nature; but circumstances having occasioned a coldness with the Minister, I found that any attempt to carry my measures into effect were not likely to be successful in parliament, and that I must wait for a more favourable period to bring them forward.' Thus we perceive that propitious circumstances must concur with wise plans, in order to give them effect. We have known Bishops as well as Baronets lamenting the frigid indifference of Ministers!

Not discouraged, however, by his first disappointment, Sir John continued to cherish the plan which he had formed. Fully impressed with the importance of the institution of an Agricultural Board, he came to London, in 1792, determined, at all events, to make the attempt; though at first with so little hopes of success that, as he informs us in a note, Mr. Arthur Young jocosely betted with him a complete set of *the Annals of Agriculture* against *the Statistical Account of Scotland*, that Mr. Pitt would give it no encouragement; and told him in a letter that his Board of Agriculture would be in the Moon.

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it ploughed for them, being furnished with seed, &c. The days they work are not indefinite, but fixed by themselves, and they receive for 100 days two pounds ten shillings in money, and three bolls of meal, and so on in proportion, being about the same wages that a farm servant has in that part of the island.'

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Yet Mr. Young, in the true Newmarket style, *hedges*, for he adroitly adds, "If on earth, remember I am to be Secretary;" thus taking care, if he should lose his bet, to gain a place; which he has effected, according to the subsequent account here given, in some measure owing to this circumstance, and not as a reward for the sacrifice of political principles, as has been suggested. Sir John attributes much of his final success to the friendship and assistance of Mr. Secretary Dundas (now Lord Melville).

Essay X. *Proposals for establishing, by Subscription, A New Institution to be called The Plough;* or, Joint Stock Farming and Experimental Society, for ascertaining the Principles of Agricultural Improvement.—The author proposes that a capital of 80,000 l. shall be subscribed, divided into 1,600 shares of 50 l. each; that eight experimental arable and grazing farms, in the neighbourhood of London and in different parts of the kingdom, shall be established, at an annual expence of 4000 l. each; that there shall be two upland farms, for improving mountain sheep, at 1,500 l. each; that 35,000 l. shall be expended in purchasing, planting, fencing, &c. 5000 acres; and that 10,000 l. shall be reserved as a Contingent Fund. This plan will be generally considered as visionary: but the objections which may be supposed to be made to it are seriously discussed.

Essay XI. *Letter to the Proprietor of an extensive Property, on the Means of promoting the Comfort, and improving the Situation, of the People in his Neighbourhood.*—Under the heads of Food, Clothing, Habitation, Fuel, Industry, Health, Amusements, Manners and Customs, Mental Information, and Moral and Religious Instruction, advice is here modestly but with great brevity offered. The last mentioned subject is thus discussed:

'But the object principally entitled to the attention of every beneficent mind is, the instruction of the people in their moral and religious Duties. This, above every thing else, must tend to promote their happiness in this world, and in another. In almost all countries, some attention is paid by Government to this most essential particular, but in many cases, more with a view of making it an engine of state, than that of promoting the real interests of the people. When such a circumstance takes place, it cannot be expected that the establishment even of the best religious system, can be attended with those advantages which otherwise might be looked for. Far different, I am persuaded, will be your views, in the exertions you will make for establishing the principles of true religion on your extensive domains, and from your success in that most important particular, (regarding which I entertain no doubt,) you will derive, I am persuaded, more real satisfaction, than from any other pursuit, in which great labour, great influence, or great ability, could possibly be employed.'

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The sacred principle, that "*Righteousness exalteth a nation,*" ought in an especial manner to be reverenced in all plans intended to promote the comfortable circumstances and general happiness of the community.

The subject of the last Essay is *Longevity.* Sir John wishes not to argue himself out of humour with Life; he does not, like Juvenal, draw a most gloomy picture of Old Age, and then write under it, *Hæc data pœna diu viventibus:* but he endeavours to persuade himself that Life, with proper management, may be comfortably protracted. He mentions the circumstances and rules tending to promote Longevity, and the countries most favourable to it; adding to the whole, tables of Longevity. A more curious and interesting enumeration will rarely be found in any volume, than that which details the circumstances which are favorable to Longevity, we cannot therefore resist the temptation of inserting it:

'1. *Climate.* In the first place, climate seems to be of considerable importance; and it may be laid down as a general rule, that the moderate, or even the coldest climates, are the most favourable to long life. Heat seems to relax and enfeeble, cold to strengthen and brace, the human frame. The diet also of hot countries is not so nourishing as that of cold *; and there is in general a greater disposition, and greater opportunities to indulge in various excesses in the former, than in the latter. But if the climate be cool, a rainy atmosphere seems to be less unfavourable to longevity than could well be imagined; for Ireland, which is a wet country, boasts of a great number of old people. And a very large proportion of the aged who have lived in England and Scotland, have resided in the western, and, consequently, the rainiest counties in the island †.

'2. *Form.* The next circumstance to be considered is, the form and size of the individual. It is generally admitted, that persons of a compact shape, and of a moderate stature, are the most likely to live long. Height often originates from the disproportioned growth of some particular part of the body, which necessarily has a tendency to engender weakness and disease. Tall persons also are apt to acquire a habit of stooping, which contracts the chest, and is a great enemy to free respiration; whereas the short-sized find little difficulty

'* In cold countries they live more upon animal, in hot countries upon vegetable, food, and fruits. A judicious mixture of both is the best plan to pursue, but of the two, animal food is the most nourishing.'

'† Moisture, it would appear, is not prejudicial to health, if it does not affect the purity of the air. Even stagnated water, if in peat-bogs or morasses, is not unwholesome, as the water, by the astringency of the peat, is prevented from becoming putrid. Lincolnshire, also, and several of the marshy counties of England, can produce a number of instances of great age, but probably they were from the more elevated parts of these districts.'

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in keeping themselves erect, and are naturally much more active, by which the animal functions are retained in a state of much greater perfection. The only disadvantage attending a short stature is, that it is frequently accompanied with corpulence, which is rather unfavourable to long life.

'3. *Parentage.* Being born of healthy parents, and exempted from hereditary disease, are circumstances evidently favourable to longevity. A puny frame, like Cornaro's, may, by the greatest care and anxiety, be preserved in existence; but those who inherit health and strength, and are born with robust constitutions, can alone expect not only to live long, but to enjoy the pleasures and comforts of life, whilst they continue to possess it.

'4. *Natural disposition.* Longevity also seems to depend much upon good temper, mixed at the same time with a cheerfulness of disposition, or good spirits *. Neither the irascible, nor those who, from despondency, sink under the crosses of life, can expect to live long. Even those who suffer their strength and spirits to be exhausted by severe study, or other mental exertions, seldom reach great age. In the long list of 1712 persons who lived about a century, Fontenelle (who did not quite reach 100 years) is the only author of any note; and his great age is ascribed to the tranquil ease of his temper, and that liveliness of spirits for which he was much distinguished; for he retained to the last *the youth of old age*, as the French happily express it.

'5. *Situation in life.* It is commonly observed, "that it is not the rich and great, not those who depend on medicines, who become old, but such as use much exercise, are exposed to the fresh air, and whose food is plain and moderate." And it is certain that persons of that description, in general, stand the best chance of living long. At the same time, though instances of old age in great and noble personages are not often to be met with, yet they may be as many, *in proportion to the smaller number of such persons*, as those in the lower but more numerous classes of society. Nor is there any thing inconsistent in power, rank, or wealth, being accompanied with a long period of existence, provided other circumstances are favourable to longevity.

'6. *Professions.* In the next place, it is evident that long life must depend much on the manner in which the individual is employed. Unhealthy occupations generally become fatal. Yet Peter Prin, a glass-blower, is said to have attained the great age of 101; and John Tyler, a miner at Leadhills, in Scotland, is supposed to have reached even 132 years †. His age, indeed, could not be proved by direct, but it rests on very strong circumstantial, evidence; and a person of the most undoubted authority (Dr. Walker, Professor of Natural

'* Hence the great age to which many of the French nobility lived, particularly before the regency of Orleans.'

'† It is said that neither of these instances ought much to be wondered at, as a glass-blower is constantly exposed to fresh and dry air, and the labour of miners under ground is not for many hours, and they generally reside in hilly districts.'

History

History in the University of Edinburgh,) informs me, "that in his muscles, joints, and in his whole conformation and aspect, he wore the appearance of more remote antiquity than he had ever seen in any human creature." But on the whole, farmers, gardeners, and labourers in the country, are in general the longest lived. Foot soldiers also, who have survived the dangers of war, are remarkable for long life. They are generally stout and vigorous men, and the regularity to which surviving soldiers must have accustomed themselves, whilst the careless and disorderly drop off, the erect posture to which they have been trained, and being of course men well formed by nature, and habituated to march and walk well, (which familiarizes them to a natural and healthy exercise,) all combine in their favour.

'7. *Exercise or labour.* It is also proper to remark, that not only moderate exercise, but even labour, if not too severe, contributes to good health and old age. In many instances, persons have worked at threshing, and other laborious occupations, exposed to a current of fresh air, after they had passed beyond the age of 100, and, if accustomed to them, they do not appear to have suffered any inconvenience from such exertions.

'8. *Connubial connections.* Nor ought it to be omitted, that a large proportion of the long-lived, have preferred a married to a single state, and in general have left behind them a numerous family. Whether a life of celibacy occasions disease, or leads to irregularity, or sours the temper, or to whatever other cause it ought to be attributed, may be a subject of dispute, but it is certain, that the number of single persons who live long, bears no proportion to the married *.

'9. *Sex.* Farther, though a greater number of males are born than of females, at least in European countries, yet there is reason to believe, that of the two sexes, women reach old age in the greatest proportion. For this various causes may be assigned, as the greater regularity and temperance of their mode of living, their being less exposed to dangers and hardships, less subject to violent agitations, and generally endowed with more cheerfulness and gentleness of disposition.

'10. *Renewal of youth.* In the last place, among the symptoms of longevity, none is more striking than when Nature seems to renew itself, by producing, even in old age, new teeth, new hair, &c. but the instances of this are extremely rare.'

In taking our leave of Sir John Sinclair,, who has our best wishes, we warmly recommend to him the adoption of his own advice. Though he has indirectly told us that we must not expect to live to be centenaries, we beg to inform him that we are resolved to counteract the effects of study by as much cheerfulness and pleasantry as it is possible for us to obtain; and that, if the piles of publications which block up our doors

'* This applies to both sexes, in particular to the male. -Dr. Rush of Philadelphia asserts, that he never saw but one unmarried man exceed fourscore years.'

will

will not allow us to seek for health in the fields, we shall endeavour to keep up our spirits, and to promote the circulation of the blood, by laughing as often as we can—sometimes *with* authors, and sometimes *at* them.

ART. XI. *Journals of Travels in Parts of the late Austrian Low Countries, France, the Pays de Vaud, and Tuscany*, in the Years 1787 and 1789. By Lockhart Muirhead, A. M. Librarian to the University of Glasgow. 8vo. pp. 440. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1803.

THE information conveyed in books of travels, and which renders them objects of general interest, is of such a nature that the date of the narrative is a circumstance of primary import. If the subject be the physical, moral, and political state of antient empires and nations, we derive particular gratification from the remoteness of the record; and for the same reason, if the writer's design be to report the actual condition of modern countries and living people, his representation excites interest in proportion as it is recent. It is obvious, therefore, that the volume before us has lost some of its attractions, by having been so long concealed from the public eye: but the preface informs us that it has been retarded by 'an expectation of retracing the same routes, and of bringing to a first sketch the results of a second, perhaps of a third review.' This motive was highly commendable; and it is much to be wished that the writers of Travels would more frequently be actuated by its force and propriety.

Mr. Muirhead is aware of another objection, that 'the continent of Europe has been often traversed and often described:' but he justly adds that 'it is by no means so exempt from vicissitude, that the accounts of one generation should preclude those of another.' In apologizing, also, for the deficiencies in profound investigation, or the inaccuracies of the attempted delineations, which may be attributed to the generality of travels, he thus modestly describes his own pretensions:

'Where information was of easy access, I have not willingly allowed it to escape; where it lay concealed, or beyond the reach of ordinary investigation, I presume not to have brought it to light. The objects which fell under my own observation, and facts which I found stated upon evidence deemed authentic, these I have attempted to commit to writing, without passion and without prejudice.'

Another passage, which contains moreover two *curious facts*, farther explains the author's limited time and scope for remark:

'As

'As the Brussels diligence received me from the track-boat, and merely passed along some of the outskirts of *Ghent*, I can enter into no details respecting this once great and prosperous city. Provoking it is, thus to have a faint and transient glimpse of a place of note; *but my time was not my own, and could not be squandered in the gratification of curiosity.* Curiosity itself is a relative term; for I have heard of an English traveller, who merely changed horses at Paris, and asked the name of the town; and have *seen* a wealthy gentleman, who travelled four hundred miles to London, which he had never seen, finished his business in an hour, and immediately measured back his route.'

With regard to interruptions of the mere journal, by reflections, episodical narratives, or personal anecdotes, Mr. M. appears to have exercised considerable forbearance and delicacy. He observes:

'With a view to break uniformity of recital, and temper the dryness of circumstantial detail, I have, occasionally, hazarded a few reflections, without pursuing them to any length: for the business of the journalist, if I rightly conceive, is to invite the thoughts of others, not, obtrusively, to discuss his own.—Pictures of characters, from real life, and extracts from private correspondence might have enlarged the volume and gratified the curiosity of some. The task, too, would have been easy, but would it have been honourable? As I value, so I respect the mutual confidence of unrestrained and unsuspecting intercourse, the grand charm of domestic society and of the intimacies of friendship.—Yet I have not scrupled to insert short notices of eminent men—of men eminent, at least, in their native districts, and who, however little known to fame, deserve to be commemorated.'

We must confess, however, that we should have welcomed a greater degree of intrusion on the formality of journalizing and the dryness of local description: especially in the more frequent introduction of the author's own sentiments and reflections, which, whenever they occur, amuse by their sprightliness, and excite esteem by their good sense and benevolence.

Natural History and Botany appear to be favorite objects of Mr. Muirhead's attention: though his mode of travelling, by the *coche d'eau*, the diligence, or other carriage, was not very favourable to researches in these attractive branches of science. Occasionally, however, the narrative is enlivened and the reader instructed by particulars of this kind.

The author's route was from Dover to Ostend, Brussels, Metz, Lausanne, Lyons, Avignon, Bareges, Toulouse, Nismes, and Marseilles; then by sea to Leghorn, and thence to Pisa, where he spent a considerable time, and the account of which city terminates the volume; 'circumstances of peculiar urgency' having recalled him to his native country, at this period of his excursion.

On

On the road between Nancy and Plombieres, we have this picture of the country and its inhabitants:

'As we began to ascend a wild and unpeopled, but picturesque, region of hill and rock, some scattered castles, hastening to utter decay, pointed to the fastnesses of feudal warfare. The *Vôges*, (*Vosagus*, or *Vogesus mons*,) that chain of hills upon which we had just entered, forms the greatest part of the southern frontier of Lorraine, and is terminated by Alsace on the east. *Donnon*, the highest summit, is four hundred toises above the level of the sea. The whole ridge stretches from Basil to Treves, an extent of fifty leagues, and gives rise to the *Meuse*, *Saône*, *Ill*, *Sar Meurthe*, &c. Though the soil be, in general, sandy and stony, the pastures are rich and uncommonly productive, owing, it is supposed, to the facilities of irrigation. In default of pasture, the sides of this chain are covered with fir, oak, or beech: but the pines which crowned the summits, and attracted the admiration of the ancients, have been gradually destroyed, to the diminution of rural beauty, and of the countless streamlets which issued from the elevated forests. *Vaccinium myrtillus*, called by the natives *briabelle*, is found in such abundance, that its berries constitute an article of food during greatest part of the year. The woodcock summers on the highest and most abrupt cliffs, and descends, in winter, into the thickets and plains. The water-ouzel, shy, silent, and solitary, haunts the loftiest recesses, and gravely stalks along the banks of streams, or even under water, in quest of insects. The peasants subsist chiefly on the produce of the dairy, and a coarse bread of barley and oats, seldom tasting butcher meat or wine. Their huts, adjected to eminences, or, sunk in the earth, are damp and comfortless. A thin partition separates the cattle from the family, and the dung is heaped up before the door. Temperance, exercise, and frequent exposure to the open air can alone counteract such slovenly habits of life. The strong spirit distilled from the cherry and juniper is sold out of the country. The men are, for the most part, stout, and suffer no restraint from their dress, which is loose and wide. Environed with a bracing air, with grand and extended prospects, remote from the complications and corruptions of crowded societies, limiting his wants and attachments, the moral, like the physical, frame of the mountaineer, assumes a tone of vigour and independence; sentiments and affections are expressed as they arise; a native frankness, an unaffected hospitality, attracts the steps of the wanderer, as he overlooks and pities the cities of the plain. From transient hints and observation, it was not difficult to learn, that the Vôgians are of simple manners, impatient of restraint, kind to strangers, and fondly riveted to the mountains of their fathers.'

At Besançon, a peculiar anecdote is related:

'The adventures of the *Abbé de Vatteville* are so singular, and so little known, that I am tempted to trace their outline. He was brother to Baron de Vatteville, once ambassador at the court of London. The abbé, when colonel of the regiment of Burgundy, in the service of Philip IV. of Spain, evinced his courage by repeated actions

actions of eclat. Chagrined, however, with neglect of promotion, he resigned his commission, and retired into the convent of Carthusians, at Besançon. As his restless spirit could ill brook the gloom and silence of a cloister, he appointed a confidential friend to wait for him, with a horse, without the garden wall, and secretly procured of his relations some money, a riding dress, a case of pistols, and a sword. Thus equipped, he stole, during the night, from his cell, into the garden, stabbed the prior, whom he met on his way, scrambled over the wall, and rode off at full speed. When his horse could advance no further, from fatigue and hunger, he alighted at an obscure inn, ordered all the meat in the house to be got ready, and sat down to dinner with the utmost composure. A traveller, who arrived a few minutes later, politely requested that he might be allowed to share with him. Vatteville rudely refused, alleging that there was little enough for himself, and, impatient of contradiction, killed the gentleman on the spot with one pistol, and presenting the other to the landlady and waiter, swore he would blow out their brains, if they once dared to interrupt his repast.—Having thus escaped with impunity, he encountered various fortunes, landed, at length, in Turkey, assumed the turban, received a commission in the army, was raised to the rank of bashaw, and nominated to the government of certain districts of the Morea.—But longing to revisit his native country, he entered into a secret correspondence with the Venetians, then at war with the Turks, obtained absolution, along with a considerable church living in Franche Comté, delivered the towns and forts under his command into the hands of the enemy; and was actually presented by Lewis XIV. to the vacant see of Besançon. The Pope, however, who had granted absolution, refused the bull,—and Vatteville was obliged to content himself with the first deanery, and two rich abbeys. In the midst of his magnificence he sometimes deigned to call on his old friends, the Carthusians, and, at last, expired quietly in his bed, at the advanced age of ninety!—A roturier, guilty of one half of his enormities, would have been broken upon the wheel.'

The benevolent mind of the author appears in the following passage:

'Moved up a high and steep hill. Though the country appeared little cultivated, and thin of inhabitants, some roaming flocks and herds agreeably enlivened the shifting prospects.—Breakfasted at *l'Hôpital de Grand-bois*, a sorry village, with a poor inn. The mistress, old and infirm, craved, in the most piteous tone, something *pour l'amour de Dieu*. Her *claim* reminded me of the old woman whom friar Yves, envoy of St. Lewis, encountered in the streets of Damascus, holding, in her right hand, a platter of fire, and, in her left, a flask of water. *What mean you*, said the ambassador, *by these opposite symbols? With the fire*, answered the picturesque moralist, *I would consume Paradise, and with the water, extinguish the flames of Hell.* The friar, still more astonished, requested she would explain the enigma. *I would have every man*, she replied, *follow virtue from pure love to the Deity, regardless of the hope of reward, or the fear of punishment.*

punishment. Amid the jarring systems of ancient and modern sages, how amiable and sublime is the philosophy of an unlettered female,—whose very name has not descended to posterity. Crusaders of every denomination, base inquisitors, who rack the fibres of your fellow mortals, and bigoted or interested persecutors, who would torture the honest feelings of the upright and the tolerant,—think of the woman of Damascus, and be covered with confusion!'

Respecting the disputed subject of the mixture of the waters of the Rhone with those of Lake Leman, we have these remarks:

'That the Rhône, which enters at Villeneuve, and issues at Geneva, preserves its course, uninterrupted and unmixed, through such an extent of water, is one of the many wonders which never existed but in the minds of the credulous. Yet many fictions originate in truth. As the river rushes in with violence, it preserves its onward course for a short distance, ere it is uniformly diffused in the mass. The tale, however, is not of yesterday. Ammianus Marcellinus, who so easily swallowed the balls of fire, seems anxious to digest them by a miraculous river. A Pæninis Alpibus, says he, effusiore copia fontium Rhodanus fluens, et proclivi impetu ad planiora digrediens, proprio agmine ripas occultas, et paludi sese ingurgitat, nomine Lemano, eamque intermeans, *nusquam aquis miscetur externis, sed altrinsecus summitates undæ prælerlabens segniores quæritans exitus viam sibi impetu veloci molitur*, &c. Besides the Rhône, forty subordinate streams pour their tribute into the lake. In different portions of the surface, the aspect usually varies: but the most delightful changes are occasioned by the pure azure of day, the glowing tints of the rising and setting sun, and the tremulous reflections of the moon. Sometimes it exhibits shadings of sea-green, and is liable to considerable agitation from high winds. The phenomenon of the *seiche*, or mock tide, confined to the extremities of the lake, and which occurs when the warmth of the atmosphere is most favourable to the melting of the snow, has been ascribed by Jallabert and others to the increased volume of the Rhône and the Arve. The fish most common in this lake are trout and perch, the latter uncommonly large. The want of salmon is compensated by the large and small *umble* or *ombre*, varieties of the *salmo umbra* of Linné, and mentioned by some naturalists as peculiar to the Swiss and Italian lakes. The large sort, frequently termed *umble chevalier*, measures three feet, when full grown, and tastes like salmon. The back is blue, with dark shadings, and the belly of a golden yellow. The *liezole*, *pala*, *farra*, or *ferra*, and even the *platte*, seem to be only provincial appellations of the *salmo lavaretus*. The tippet grebe haunts the Leman from December to February, makes its nest of rushes, interwoven with reeds, and has it partly immersed, but not floating, as Linné has asserted. On account of its delicate and warm plumage, which is converted into muffs and tippets, it sells for about fourteen shillings. Though principally known upon the continent by the name of *Grebe du lac de Genève*, it likewise frequents the lake of Zurich, and that of Grandlieu, in Britany.'

The beautiful scenery of this romantic spot, and the charms of the society around it, animated Mr. Muirhead's feelings beyond the sobriety of prose; and they thus expanded in strains of poetry which reflect no discredit on his courtship of the Muses, and which remind us of Gray:

I.

'Farewell, ye modest roofs, ye antique tow'rs!
Condemn'd from you and innocence to stray,
Still must I dream of vine-clad hills and bow'rs,
Where balmy zephyrs fan the lap of May.

II.

'Adieu, ye rocks, that echo to the voice
Of swains disporting in the daisied glade,
Adieu, ye walks, where virtue's sons rejoice,
Musing, at eve, in contemplation's shade!

III.

'Ye Alpine monuments of age, whose pride
Sublimely mocks our boasted domes below,
Far into vapour blue I see you glide,
Vanish your awful cliffs and hoary heads of snow!

IV.

'You, heights of Jura, may each patriot hail,
As bulwarks rear'd by an Almighty *arm*—
Oh skreen Helvetia, when the hosts assail,
Oh guard her children from the tyrant's *harm!*

V.

'I leave the wavy pine, the tufted dell,
The vale of smiles and many mansions fair,
I leave those charms no common lore can tell,
Those charms which lull ambition, pride, and care.

VI.

'And must I leave thee, Leman, Europe's boast,
Sweeping in crescent form the vale profound,
While fairy wavelets play upon thy coast,
And foaming Rhône is sooth'd, and listens to the sound?

VII.

'Oft would I pore upon thy glassy stream,
In balmy visitations of the morn,
And oft, at eve, in Cynthia's quiv'ring gleam,
Would catch the echo of the winding horn.

VIII.

'Oft have I stray'd the margin's maze along,
As oft admir'd grand Nature's changing pow'rs,
Who now moves placid to the vernal song,
And now in frowns and midnight horrors low'rs.

'For

IX.

'For blythsome morn, in saffron cincture bound,
'Mid all the glories of the blue serene,
Would shed ambrosial dews and fragrance round,
And myriad flow'rs bedeck the shelving green.

X.

'When, lo! a lurid cloud, athwart the sky,
With coming blasts deforms the tranquil pole,
The forky darts of glaring light'nings fly,
The dread-inspiring peals of thunders roll!

XI.

'The torrent tumbles to the mountain's base,
The drifted masses from their craggs are hurl'd—
The din rebellows thro' th'unfathom'd maze,
And dark confusion scowls upon the world!

XII.

'O ye, who wind along the mountain hoar,
Hie to some cave, or shepherd's rude abode,
Whether tremendous wonders you explore,
Or wend to Rome, to kneel before your God!

XIII.

'For soon this elemental war shall cease,
These hollow sounds in airy distance die,
Iris, the gentle harbinger of peace,
Shall trace her glorious arch along the sky.

XIV.

'Hush'd was the whirlwind, when, from lofty fane,
The freshen'd landscape seem'd to stretch afar,
Geneva's tow'rs rose on the western plain,
And glitter'd to the day's refulgent star.

XV.

'Her walls of lore would then recall a name,
To truth, humanity, and freedom dear—
O ye, whose breasts glow with a gen'rous flame,
Pardon his errors and his worth revere!

XVI.

'And next the rocks of Meillerie display'd
Dear sombre haunts, where youths and virgins sigh,
Whilst Vevey's shore spoke of the hapless maid,
And Chillon's turrets trembl'd on the eye.

XVII.

'Such tender sympathies invade the soul,
When fond remembrance wakens from repose,
Sweet were those moments when from play we stole
And melted at the tale of Julia's woes!

XVIII.

'Thou sun of eve, whose mild declining ray
Would tinge yon airy ice with roseate hue,
And close with ever-varying charms the day,
Accept the tribute of a long adieu!

XIX.

'Yet, oft as radiance of the western skies,
In some far distant land appears to burn,
Fancy shall bid Valdensia's vistas rise,
Shall bid the hours on angel wing return.

XX.

'Yes, they return—I'll linger yet awhile
On borders darling as my native home—
Kind Fancy, all my wayward thoughts beguile,
And waft me to the friends from whom I roam!

XXI.

'Again I mingle in the social choir,
The converse sage or jocund still goes round,
Lausonia's nymphs still strike the trembling wire,
And "*wake to ecstacy*" the thrilling sound.

XXII.

'Let others revel in their gorgeous halls,
Their bulse of Ind and canopy display,
In sullen state deride the poor man's calls,
Or fawn on scepter'd pageants of a day.

XXIII.

'Let others prize the pomp of Europe's crimes,
And all the wealth our captive brethren yield,
Let monsters, savage as their frozen climes,
Erect their empire on the blood-stain'd field!

XXIV.

'Mine be the boon of fond domestic joy,
And health, and competence, and inward ease—
Ah! these are blessings sure without alloy,
Again I breathe Helvetia's genial breeze.

XXV.

'Ah no! like fleeting phantom of the morn,
Which long and oft its victim may deplore,
The spell dissolves in air,—the swain, forlorn,
Pours his sad descants on the parting shore.'

At Avignon, an anecdote respecting a Jew again manifests the liberal and compassionate views of the writer:

'The traveller who tarries at Avignon, may expect to enjoy the pleasure of a fine day, and of delightful prospects; but will be fortunate indeed, if he can superadd those of virtuous and confidential society. Far be it from me to pass unqualified and indiscriminate

criminate strictures upon any community; and among the thousands, who still reside within the papal walls, I should be grieved to think that honesty is an empty name. Yet personal intercourse has concurred with the unbiassed representations of individuals in establishing the deplorable fact, that amidst the frequent repetitions of the solemn summons to offices of devotion, real or feigned bigotry, sneaking finesse, and disregard to truth, reign triumphant. Thus, too, is Rome a well known seat of atheism and chicane—and thus it will ever be, when idleness takes place of industry, when rewards are held out to unworthy compliances and talents for intrigue, when the accommodations of confession and absolution are of easy access, when phantoms are substituted for realities, and a childish mummery for the love of God and of our fellow-men.—*Well*, said a sensible and affectionate friend, *you have to pass some months at Avignon, which shelters the French renegado, and fosters an undue proportion of monks and clergy. I studied there myself, and am no stranger to the character of the inhabitants—Beware of forming intimacies, and recollect that the Catholics are there the* JEWS. The point of this parting exhortation recurred with singular zest when, upon a Friday evening, a canon of the cathedral politely offered to conduct me to the synagogue. The latter is small, but neat, and mimics the distribution of the temple of Jerusalem. The chanting of the Hebrew service is peculiarly grating, but the composed air of the worshippers betokens the sincerity of devotion. The women occupy an under apartment, and have the service read to them in the Provençal dialect, as few of them understand Hebrew. When I took the liberty of asking one of them why so few of her sex attended the synagogue, she replied that most of them were occupied with family concerns, and could say their prayers at home. Nor would I willingly suppress the following trait. Upon observing an elderly man, to whom those in the porch paid particular attention, I presumed he was a rabbi—but was soon informed that he was a simple honest trader, who had lately paid the amount of a bond of surety, which, owing to some flaw in the deed, he might have evaded with impunity. He is nearly reduced to poverty, but has acquired additional respect, and has preserved his peace of mind. His brethren here, to the number of five or six hundred, are allowed to live cooped up in a separate and ill aired quarter of the town, in consideration of repeated douceurs, and upon condition that the men wear orange or yellow hats, and the women flat caps, stuffed at the sides. Yet it is generally allowed that they live quietly, and that they are more exemplary than their neighbours in the discharge of domestic duties. Their modest inoffensive deportment must sensibly affect every feeling mind, and induce it to sympathize with an unfortunate portion of our species, so long branded with epithets of the vilest abuse, so often doomed to bleed at the shrine of relentless fanaticism, so often goaded by persecution to gratify the avarice or the caprice of princes. Among Jews, no doubt, may be found usurers, and men of more acuteness than delicacy in the transactions of life, but, in a commercial state of society, usury ceases to be a crime, and they who stake their only property at a more than ordinary risk, are well entitled to an advanced premium.

Depravity of the sense of honour is an almost necessary consequence of marked opprobrium and invidious segregation. Cease to stigmatise a degraded class of beings—admit them to the equal rights of humanity, open to their view other prospects than those of mere loss and gain, and then censure, if you will, their dereliction of integrity. The slave still groans under the sanction of European laws—the myriad shades of Indians are unappeased—must we also pursue with infamy and scorn the harrassed remnants of a once distinguished people?'

In the course of the author's account of Marseilles, we find the following interesting story respecting an eminent character, which we believe to be not generally known, and which subsequent information leads us to consider as authentic:

'A young man, named *Robert*, sat alone in his boat, in the harbour of Marseilles. A stranger had stept in and taken his seat near him, but quickly rose again; observing, that, since the master had disappeared he would take another boat. "This, Sir, is mine,"—said Robert,—"would you sail without the harbour?"—"I meant only to move about in the bason, and enjoy the coolness of this fine evening.—But I cannot believe you are a sailor." "Nor am I—yet on Sundays and holidays, I act the bargeman, with a view to make up a sum."—"What! covetous at your age!—your looks had almost prepossessed me in your favour."—"Alas! Sir, did you know my situation, you would not blame me."—"Well—perhaps I am mistaken—let us take our little cruize of pleasure, and acquaint me with your history."

'The stranger having resumed his seat, the dialogue, after a short pause, proceeded thus.—"I perceive, young man, you are sad—what grieves you thus?" "My father, Sir, groans in fetters, and I cannot ransom him. He earned a livelihood by petty brokerage, but, in an evil hour, embarked for Smyrna, to superintend in person the delivery of a cargo, in which he had a concern. The vessel was captured by a Barbary corsair, and my father was conducted to Tetuan, where he is now a slave. They refuse to let him go for less than 2000 crowns, a sum which far exceeds our scanty means. However we do our best—my mother and sisters work day and night—I ply hard at my stated occupation of a journeyman jeweller, and, as you perceive, make the most I can of Sundays and holidays. I had resolved to put myself in my father's stead; but my mother, apprized of my design, and dreading the double privation of a husband and only son, requested the Levant captains to refuse me a passage."—"Pray, do you ever hear from your father?—under what name does he pass?—or what is his master's address?"—"His master is overseer of the royal gardens at Fez—and my father's name is Robert at Tetuan, as at Marseilles."—"Robert—overseer of the royal gardens?"—"Yes, Sir."—"I am touched with your misfortunes—but venture to predict their termination."

'Night drew on apace. The unknown, upon landing, thrust into young Robert's hand a purse containing eight double louis d'ors, with ten crowns in silver—and instantly disappeared.

'Six

'Six weeks had passed since this adventure, and each returning sun bore witness to the unremitting exertions of the good family. As they sat one day at their unsavoury meal of bread and dried almonds, old Robert entered the apartment, in a garb little suited to a fugitive prisoner, tenderly embraced his wife and children, and thanked them with tears of gratitude for the fifty louis they had *caused remit* to him on his sailing from Tetuan, his free passage, and a comfortable supply of wearing apparel. His astonished relatives eyed one another in silence. At length, Madame Robert, suspecting her son had secretly concerted the whole plan, recounted the various instances of his zeal. "Six thousand livres," continued she, "is the sum we wanted—and we had already procured somewhat more than the half, owing chiefly to his industry. Some friends, no doubt, have assisted him upon an emergency like the present." A gloomy suggestion crossed the father's mind. Turning suddenly to his son, and eyeing him with the sternness of distraction, "Unfortunate boy," exclaimed he, "what have you done? How can I be indebted to you for my freedom, and not regret it? How could you effect my ransom, without your mother's knowledge, unless at the expence of virtue? I tremble at the thought of filial affection having betrayed you into guilt. Tell the truth at once—and let us all die, if you have forfeited your integrity." "Calm your apprehensions, my dearest father," cried the son, embracing him,—"no, I am not unworthy of such a parent, though fortune has denied me the satisfaction of proving the full strength of my attachment—I am not your deliverer—but I know who is.—Recollect, mother, the unknown gentleman, who gave me the purse. He was particular in his enquiries. Should I pass my life in the pursuit, I must endeavour to meet with him, and invite him to contemplate the fruits of his beneficence." He then related to his father all that passed in the pleasure-boat, and removed every distressing suspicion.

'Restored to the bosom of his family, Robert again partook of their joys, prospered in his dealings, and saw his children comfortably established. At last, on a Sunday morning, as his son sauntered on the quay, he recognized his benefactor, clasped his knees, and entreated him as his guardian angel, as the saviour of a father and a family, to share the happiness of his own creation. The stranger again disappeared in the crowd—but, reader, this stranger was Montesquieu.'

In taking leave of this work, we have only to add that the style is generally easy and correct: but we were sorry to find it disfigured by the frequent occurrence of *Scotticisms*: such as *would* for *should*, and *vice versâ*; *caused join*, *caused build*, *caused remit*, *caused bury*, &c.; 'to study *prone* on the floor;' '*preferably chose*;' &c. &c. This last is also objectionable as a pleonasm. In p. 120, the celebrated *Gibbon* is styled *Gibbons*; a mistake which we have observed in many other writers, and which confounds the magnificent historian with a humble divine.

Art. XII. *A New Version of the Psalms of David.* By Joseph Cottle. Crown 8vo. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co.

Art. XIII. *A Poetical Version of certain Psalms of David.* By Richard Cumberland, Esq. Crown 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons.

KING David has had more liberties taken with him, than any royal personage of either antient or modern times. Poets of all descriptions have made free with his compositions; and those pious effusions which he sang to his harp, or which were blended with the harmonious worship of the Jewish temple, have been twanged through the nose by Christian clerks and psalm-singers, and vociferated with every possible discordance. Of his persecutions, indeed, there seems to be no end; and rhymsters are still resolved, though he has already been turned and twisted a thousand ways, to exhibit him in new versions.—The ease with which these publications are constructed is no small temptation to a lazy poet; for the spirit of Sternhold and Hopkins generally speaks in King David *turned into English*, and his sentiments have the disadvantage of being often clothed in the most feeble, tame, and aukward numbers.

Some of the psalms in Watts's Version manifest considerable force and expression: but we cannot approve the liberty which he has taken in making David sing as if he were a Christian and not a Jewish monarch. Strictly speaking, they are not David's but Watts's Psalms, with the sentiments of the Hebrew poets (for not all those pieces intitled *Psalms* are the compositions of David) liberally dispersed through them. This error, however, we understand, has been in a great measure corrected in a late edition; and we wish that this circumstance may be more fully considered in future. Let David and his contemporaries express themselves conformably to the degree of knowlege that marked the dispensation under which they lived; and let the doctrines and discoveries of the Gospel be displayed in separate hymns and canticles.

The first of the versions before us betrays the fault of which we complain, viz. that of giving to David more wisdom than his own writings prove him to have possessed. Thus, Mr. Cottle makes David speak of *the last great trump* *. Mr. Cumberland has avoided this incongruity: but, if he has not transformed David into a Christian, he has put the language of heathenism into his mouth by making him describe '*the pendant globe*' as 'poised in the *chains of Fate.*'

* In his preface, however, Mr. C. protests against such anachronisms.

We

We expected, in Mr. Cumberland's version, fidelity combined with simple elegance: but he does not appear to have laboured to distinguish himself from the mass of modern translators of the Psalms. For example:

'What madness rages *all abroad?*
What *ails* the Princes of the earth?'

'I slept, reposing on his word;
I rose, and lo! *again I'm whole.*'

'Tis God I covet, *not his earth.*'

"Heav'n's vengeance sleeps for very fear,
God dares not *thunder in my ear.*"

"*Tush!* God is blind," the monster cries,
"He can't or will not use his eyes;
He sleeps or slumbers, or, *if not,*
Waking he doats and hath *forgot.*"

'Do this, O Man, and know *withal*—'

'I am beset and *bay'd about.*'

'So wasted and *so gaunt am I.*'

'He hoards up riches for the tomb,
Or leaves them to *he knows not whom.*'

When we read these lines, we cannot avoid saying that Mr. Cumberland's sacred muse has fallen too much into the drawling and hobbling gait of her predecessors.

Mr. Cottle, who has undertaken a new version of all the Psalms, does not profess to be literal: his object being rather to catch the spirit than adhere to the letter. 'He has endeavoured (he says) to preserve a distinctness of subject in the respective Psalms; to accomplish which, he has been obliged not only to omit, but sometimes to transpose or paraphrase as the occasion most required.' These liberties may be allowable in certain places: but none of these reasons can justify his omission of the most beautiful passage of the 19th Psalm, which Mr. Cumberland has thus in part not unhappily rendered;

'With giant speed and bridal grace
The joyful sun begins his race;
From pole to pole his splendour flies,
And light and heat to all supplies.'

Neither he, however, nor Mr. Addison, has preserved the sublime idea of the whole starry firmament being the tabernacle of the great luminary.

In the 139th Psalm, Mr. Cottle has committed an egregious blunder. The 9th verse is happily rendered by Watts,

"If

" If mounted on *a morning ray*,
I fly beyond the western sea,
Thy *swifter* hand,' &c.

and Mr. Cumberland has preserved the idea, though he has expressed it with less beauty:

' Lend me, O Morning, lend me wings!
On the first beam of opening day,
To the last wave the ocean flings
On the world's shore, I'll *flit* away.'

but Mr. Cottle, instead of adopting the truly noble sentiment of the Psalmist, that, if we employed a morning sun-beam as a vehicle, and travelled with the rapidity of light to the uttermost point of the west, we should still be encompassed by the Divine Presence; instead of considering the wings of the morning as rays of light, shooting themselves from east to west; makes the wings of the morning go to meet the sun-beam, as in the following stanza:

' If on the wings of morn I rose
And *met the sun-beam on his way*;
This would but more thy power disclose,
Great Source of Life and God of Day!'

We could point out many defects and inaccuracies, but two or three must suffice. The 15th Psalm begins thus:

' Who shall thy Tabernacle fill
And *Thee*, O Lord! *draw near?*'

and the 1st stanza of the 16th ends thus:

' Beneath thy smiles I spread my tent,—
Thou art the only *excellent*.'

In the 84th, we have the following stanza:

' My heart would rather feel distress
Within the house of prayer,
Than dwell in tents of wickedness
Altho' *a Monarch there*.'

These passages are not to be tolerated; and if new translators of the psalms do not more improve on their predecessors, the public will not have much inducement to encourage such undertakings.

ART. XIV. *Guineas an unnecessary and expensive Incumbrance on Commerce*; or the Impolicy of repealing the Bank Restriction-Bill considered. 8vo. pp. 123. 3s. sewed. Nicol. 1802.

GUINEAS an unnecessary and expensive incumbrance! This is one of the *happy* discoveries reserved to distinguish the commencement of the nineteenth century: but we think that, *primâ facie*,

facie, few people will feel *the weight* of the argument. The author of the present pamphlet, however, is averse to the return of the *golden* age, and sings in rapturous strains the praise of the age of paper; and though he, perhaps, may tolerate a little of that which has been called the *precious* metal for subordinate purposes, he reprobates guineas, odious guineas, as forming an incumbrance *on commerce*. We are so old-fashioned in our ideas, however, as to have doubts on this subject. When did guineas ever weigh heavily on our commerce or trade with foreign states? Should we ever have heard of this doctrine, had it been possible for us to have subsidized foreign powers with paper money; or had the eloquence of the late minister, so all-subduing in our own senate, been able to convince the princes of Germany, that the paper which issued *from* our Bank was preferable to the vile ponderous metal *in its coffers?* To satiate the *auri fames* of the continental potentates, the Old Lady of Threadneedle street was forced to part with more of her *heart's blood* than her constitution could well bear; and the consequence has been an interruption in the discharge of her ordinary functions. The friends of this Lady, indeed, wish us to believe that she is only somewhat harrassed, not seriously indisposed; and while the author of the pamphlet before us urges the propriety of her being kept quiet for the present, and secured from any demands which may require exertion, he boldly contends for *the prudence and sound policy* of her being *permanently restricted* from the fulfillment of a promise which she continues to make every day.

But a truce to badinage.—It is the serious opinion of this writer, that the Bank-restriction should never be taken off; and that paper, to as great an extent as possible, should be substituted for metallic money. Great pains are employed to support this novel hypothesis. The nature of public credit and the medium of circulation, the disadvantages of metallic money, the advantages of paper-money, and the abuses of paper-money, are separately discussed; and the general conclusion is that, 'as gold and silver coin do not establish and maintain public credit, and as it is best supported by a well regulated paper-currency, there can be no doubt of the propriety of continuing the Bank Restriction Bill.'

We shall not notice all the sophistry and false reasoning with which, in our judgment, this pamphlet abounds: but we cannot help remarking that the writer's premises are incompetent to support his grand conclusion, or fundamental doctrine. It by no means follows that the Bank ought never to resume its payments in specie, because cash notes are found in many instances to enjoy an advantage over the precious metals, in facili-

facilitating the operations of commerce. The Bank was founded on this very principle: gold was brought there to be exchanged for its notes, and the conviction of their utility gave them circulation: but there is a wide difference between an *optional* and a *forced*, a temporary and a perpetual, use of paper-money. Allowing that the universal circulation of paper-money would be so decidedly beneficial to the public, that this must be obvious to every man's conviction; why contend for the application of parliamentary force?—An author must have some doubts of the strength of his arguments, when he recommends compulsion to ensure that measure, for the universal policy of which he contends.

In our opinion, paper-money and metallic money should be left, without restriction, *to find their own level*, and to be alternately convertible into each other at the option of the holder. The parade, which has been displayed in explaining the origin and advantages of public credit, might have been omitted as unnecessary on the occasion. We require not to be informed that industry and integrity are as essential to the existence and prosperity of a commercial state as gold and silver;—that mutual confidence gives activity, and operates as a real addition to capital;—that the universal persuasion of the necessity of this confidence impresses an equally universal sense of the importance of punctuality in payment;—and that cash-notes are of great use in maintaining this punctuality, so requisite to give vigour to the commercial world:—but do these positions assist in demonstrating that gold and silver ought to be turned out of circulation, as clogs or dead weights on trade and commerce? Individually considered, a circulating medium of some intrinsic value must be preferable to one of no intrinsic value. The universal use of paper-money may be productive of universal ruin: since, at the moment when it ceases to pass, it is transformed into waste paper; while the general use of a metallic medium effectually prevents so dreadful a calamity.

Though, to a certain extent, paper-money may be and certainly is highly commodious, an excessive issue of it, so far from being encouraged, ought to be deprecated as a national evil. When paper is forced into circulation beyond its due proportion, an evil is produced which it requires the greatest skill and management to remedy. The Bank Restriction Bill has operated to this effect, and the nation may confidently rely on the wisdom of Parliament for the gradual removal of this evil; for, in spite of all declamation or sophistry, we must consider it as an evil, and not as a benefit.

It is here observed that 'we want sufficient data to say precisely what is the exact amount of current coin necessary, in case the

the Bank Restriction Bill should be suffered to expire.' This is an implied confession that the Restriction has occasioned such an increase of paper, that the usual quantity of metallic money is not adequate to its liquidation. How, indeed, could it be otherwise? In asking this question, we do not mean to impeach the honour and integrity of the Bank Directors: but certain causes must produce certain effects. With the connection subsisting between the Bank and the Government, we do not interfere. A Restriction Bill was voted by Parliament; and since that time, the public creditor has been paid with notes not convertible *at the Bank* into money. It is true that these notes are received by the tax-gatherer as cash, and thus return into the treasury; and if the amount of the taxes was completely equal to the expenditure, there would be no occasion for an accumulation of these notes: but, if we suppose the contrary, an accumulation is unavoidable, even should we advert to the operation of no other causes. Government and the Bank will prevent this as much as they can: but, under existing circumstances, they cannot prevent it altogether. Though we believe this to be the fact, we contemplate it without fear: but we cannot regard those writers with indifference, who endeavour to mislead the public judgment, who would conduct us into a fool's paradise by recommending the exclusive use of paper-money, and who would endeavour to argue every brilliant guinea, bearing the image of the King, (God bless him!) out of our pockets.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For MARCH, 1803.

EDUCATION.

Art. 15. *The Life of Moses;* designed for the Instruction and Amusement of Youth. By a Lady. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Button. 1802.

THIS Lady considers herself as having two indisputable claims to the candour of the public; 'claims (she adds) which they will not disallow. She is young, and in adversity; scarcely yet entered her twenty-second year, she has drunk deep of the fountain of human affliction, nor has hitherto been permitted to refuse the bitter draught of keen disappointment.'—Most assuredly we shall not contest these claims: we will rather attend to the petition addressed to the Critics;—'Will ye be more cruel than Pharaoh? Oh! rather imitate the gentle Thermuthis, and protect the infant Moses.'

From Scripture history, somewhat aided by the well-known and valuable Jewish writer, the materials are drawn for this little performance. The interstices or chasms are filled up by the Lady's own invention:

invention: but her fancy is not wild and extravagant, and the scenes which it opens supply pious and moral reflections, which may attract the notice and improve the heart of the young reader.

We observe that our fair writer will not, with Josephus, permit her hero to marry Tharbis, daughter of the king of Ethiopia, but makes him reject the dishonourable proposal with virtuous disdain. A slight inaccuracy occurs when the infant Moses is said to have been concealed by his mother *for three months* in her own house; for, when Thermuthis, long afterward, relates her discovery of the ark or coffer, she speaks of it as containing *an infant newly-born.*

Art. 16. *Features of the Youthful Mind;* or, Tales for Juvenile Readers. By Anne Stone. 12mo. pp. 129. 2s. Harris. 1802.

Severity of criticism on this little performance, whatever may be its imperfections and defects, would be cruel. The moral is, as the author pleads, unexceptionable; the story of Astmet, though unfinished, is less common than the generality of tales; and notwithstanding two incidents which bear resemblance to some events in Tom Jones and Oroonoko, the whole may be regarded as rather novel, and far from being uninteresting. The slave-trade is presented to view as the object of just detestation. The young party, who are here the principal figures, are supposed to be descended from rich and honourable parents, under whose care they have received instructions and advantages far superior to such as can be supposed to fall to the lot of native Africans: but the iniquity of this traffic depends not on any rank which they may hold in life; let them be children of prince or of peasant, their arbitrary enslavement is alike condemned by Christianity, reason, and common-sense.—Some errors of language are to be found in this little volume; particularly in page 15, the word *tenacious* seems to be misapplied; intended, perhaps, for *cautious*, or some such term.

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 17. *A Treatise on the Morbid Affections of the Knee Joint.* By James Russell, F. R. S. Edin. 8vo. pp. 242. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1802.

This publication contains a short and judicious account of the principal diseases of a very important and complicated organ, deduced from candid and careful observation. The particular subjects into which the author divides his remarks are; superficial injuries; injuries on the bursæ below the patella; tumours containing blood; white swelling; simple inflammatory attack, and dropsical swellings. The greatest share of his attention is with propriety given to white swellings of the joint, which he considers to be of a scrophulous nature, and most successfully opposed by blisters, either applied alternately to each side of the knee, or kept open by a stimulating application, such as Savine ointment.

In the early stages, when inflammation is present, M. R. recommends the occasional use of topical bleeding: but he cautions against the too free employment of this remedy; and he advises that, when the attack

attack is severe and the progress is rapid, the succession of remedies mentioned by him in his treatise, as adapted to the progressive stages of the disease, should be passed over, and the most powerful immediately applied.

In the plan of treatment in this as well as the other affections, which come under consideration in the present work, Mr. Russell has rather distinguished himself by a judicious selection from the remedies now in use, and an accurate appreciation of their respective merits, than by suggesting any new mode.

He has annexed to his work three plates; two of which are in illustration of some of the phænomena of anchylosis; the third is a representation of an uncommon and anomalous disease, with the description of which we shall conclude this article:

'There still remains to be noticed another affection of the knee joint, most singular in its appearances and most dangerous in its consequences.

'It is anomalous and undescribed. I have only met with four or five cases of it among the great number of patients I have had occasion to see, with various affections of the knee. All those cases were far advanced in their progress, before they came under my observation, and the incipient stages of the disease were not distinctly described by the patients. At the time of the examination, the swelling was of a very large size, an irregular shape, and firm consistence. There was no distinct sense of fluctuation communicated to the touch. But by applying gentle pressure over the whole surface, it was easy to discover that the different parts of the tumour possessed various degrees of firmness. There appeared to be a perpetual and progressive increase of size, though the violence of the pain and the general irritability of the tumour were by no means proportioned to the magnitude of the other symptoms. Even after they had attained a size far beyond what a case of white swelling ever attains, the pain was not so severe. The accompanying symptomatic fever likewise was much more moderate. In rapidity of growth, however, they far exceeded any other species of swelling, as the most remarkable case which fell within my observation arrived at its acme in the course of five or six weeks. It was then indeed of a most extraordinary size, measuring, in the circumference of its largest dimensions, twenty-eight inches. At this period, it is true, the symptoms were exceedingly distressing, and the patient suffered under the pressure of hectic fever. In none of the cases, however, was there any superficial redness of the skin, or any other symptom of inflammation.

'Such are the external appearances of this singular complaint. When the substance of the mass is cut into, to discover the nature of the internal structure, it exhibits appearances obviously different from those which are to be found in many other affections of the knee. The state of the bones, in particular, bears the most marked distinction of character.

'The head of the tibia is principally affected. In some cases, it suffers a very considerable enlargement, and in others it appears to be wholly consumed. When it is enlarged there is not so much an in-

crease of substance as a separation of the lamellæ of the bone from one another.

'The bone being thus so much extended, without acquiring any addition to the quantity of matter, it very much resembles in structure a piece of honeycomb; and, from the large size of the spaces, in proportion to the small bulk of the materials, it becomes exceedingly fragile. Whether this great degree of fragility arises solely from the change in its mechanical structure, independently of any morbid affection of the parts, is a point which I cannot as yet determine with accuracy: though I am inclined to believe that the bone is also otherwise diseased, since, upon endeavouring to make a dry preparation of a case of this kind, the whole enlarged portion of bone crumbled to pieces, and, in a short time, nothing remained but that part of the tibia which had not been affected with the disease. There is likewise this further difference between the disease which I now describe, and a case of white swelling, that, in cases of white swelling, the fibula, in no instance, suffers, whereas, in this anomalous disease, the upper part of the fibula is sometimes included within the substance of the swelling, and wholly consumed. The mode of consumption, so far as my experience affords me an opportunity of examining it, appears to be this. The cancelli of the bone, by suffering an inordinate degree of distension, reduce the lamellæ to an extreme degree of thinness, which exposes an extensive surface to the action of the soft parts with which they are so intimately blended. Under these circumstances they are consumed, or incorporated with, or converted into, a similar substance. Thus, in one way or other, the original diversity of structure comes at last to be entirely obliterated. The disease in the soft parts, to which the bone is every where contiguous, resembles what has been vaguely indeed termed a scirrhous mass. It is almost transparent and colourless, and of a soft gelatinous consistence, but possessing a sufficient degree of firmness to retain its form when cut into small pieces. There is no part of it in a fluid state, and the whole mass is nearly homogeneous, though some parts of it are rather firmer than others. But in none of the cases, which have fallen within my notice, was there any tendency either to inflammation or suppuration.'

This disease the author states to be always attended with the most imminent danger, and to be incapable of being stopped by any remedy which has hitherto been tried. Recourse has frequently been had to amputation: but, without a single exception, every patient, on whom this operation was performed, died from the occurrence of hæmorrhage, which sometimes took place so late as the 13th or 14th day.—The composition of this work is far from accurate.

Art. 18. *An entire, new, and original Work, being a complete Treatise upon Spinæ Pedum*; containing several important Discoveries, illustrated with Copper plates, exhibiting the different Species of Spinæ. By Heyman Lion, Chiropedist. 8vo. pp. 428. 10s. 6d. Boards. Edinburgh, Hill; London, Longman and Co. 1802.

The author seems to consider himself as having performed a signal service to mankind, by the publication of this work; which he is convinced

convinced must meet with general approbation, since 'no system' (to use his own words) 'of more utility than the present has been offered to the world since the discovery of printing;' and he takes considerable pains to vindicate the respectability of the profession of a corn-cutter, against the prejudices which the public entertain with regard to it. In an Appendix, he informs us, (and at the same time gives some documents on the subject,) that he was rejected by the College of Surgeons of Edinburgh in his examination for a diploma, on account of the branch in which he practised; and that, for the same reason, he was refused a degree in medicine by the Professors of King's College, Aberdeen, notwithstanding the ordinary testimonials which he produced in his favour. We fear that the author will have some difficulty in changing the opinion of the public on the subject of his profession: but, whatever may be his success, it does not seem to us probable that, in case of his failure, he will soon lose his own conviction of its gentility and importance. He appears to be a skilful operator, and a man of some observation, though we do not always admit the justness of his reasoning, and the accuracy of his conclusions.—With the view of at least beginning well, he has borrowed verbatim, though without acknowlegement, the first two sentences of Dr. Robertson's introduction to the History of Scotland, for the first paragraph of his preface.

Art. 19. *Anatomical Plates of the Bones and Muscles*, diminished from Albinus, for the Use of Students in Anatomy, and Artists; and accompanied by explanatory Maps. By Robert Hooper, M. D. &c. Crown 8vo. 5s. Murray and Highley. 1802.

This little work is intended as a companion to the *Anatomist's Vade Mecum* published by the same author *, and may be useful in that connection.

VOYAGES *and* TRAVELS.

Art. 20. *Historical Account of the most celebrated Voyages, Travels, and Discoveries*, from the Time of Columbus to the present Period. By Wm. Mavor, LL. D. Vols. XXI—XXV. Small 12mo. 15s. sewed. Vernor and Hood.

We announced the former parts of this work in M. Rev. Vol. 26, N. S. p. 348. The present volumes contain Travels in Africa by Park, Damberger †, Ledyard, Lucas, Barrow, and Vaillant; Browne's Travels in Egypt and Lybia; Sonnini's Travels in Egypt; Forster's Travels in India; and Weld's and the Duke de Liancourt's Travels in America.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Art. 21. *A Dictionary of Natural History*; or, complete Summary of Zoology. Containing a full and succinct Description of all the animated Beings in Nature; namely, Quadrupeds, Birds, amphibious

* See Rev. for January, p. 88.

† How could Dr. Mavor admit these suppositious travels into his collection? See Rev. Vol. XXXV. N. S. p. 214.

phibious Animals, Fishes, Insects, and Worms. Displaying their respective Classes, Orders, Genera, Species, and Varieties, according to the Arrangements of the most celebrated Naturalists, particularly that of Linnæus. With all the various detached, and unclassed Animals, discovered by modern Naturalists. The Whole forming a complete Delineation of all the numerous Creatures which compose the Animal Kingdom, as also all the fabulous Animals of Antiquity. To which is prefixed, a Series of illustrative Definitions, explaining the necessary technical and scientific Terms; exhibiting the Modes and Properties of the different Classes of Animals, and shewing the different Arrangements of Naturalists. Elucidating the justly-admired Science of Natural History, and tending to facilitate its Acquirements. Illustrated with accurate Engravings of the most important and interesting Animals. Pocket. 4to. 8s. plain, 11s. coloured. Boards. Scatcherd, &c. 1802.

We agree with the editor, that 'the number of subjects treated of in this work must be allowed to exceed that in any other work of similar size and price;' and we cheerfully bear testimony to the distinctness of the type, the neatness of the engravings, the accuracy of several of the descriptions, and to a laudable rejection of the tales of ignorance and prejudice. Here, however, our approbation stops. The manufacturer of this little volume must have known that a *Dictionary of Natural History*, and *an Alphabetical Summary of Zoology*, are not synonymous expressions; and the word *all*, which he bestows with such complacency, is wholly inapplicable to his partial enumerations. Very few insects are specified; and the omissions are, on the whole, far more numerous than the insertions. We might pardon unnoticed errors of the press, and an injudicious mixture of learned and common appellations: but charity and ingenuity are equally at a loss to frame even a plausible excuse for those tricks of authorship, which are too often practised on the simple and unwary.

The compilement of a dictionary of natural history, on the plan of Valmont de Bomare, but with many corrections and additions, and which the learned and unlearned might consult as occasion required, would well reward the labours of a sensible and enlightened author. The means for effecting such a scheme are daily multiplying; and we trust that, ere long, they will stimulate the exertions of some person duly qualified for the task.

Art. 23. *The Cabinet;* or a Natural History of Quadrupeds, Birds, Fishes, and Insects. Illustrated with Copper-plates. Exhibiting Figures of above seven hundred Animals. 2 Vols. 12mo. (in one.) Edinburgh. 1801.

Among several recent attempts to facilitate the study of natural history, this compilation claims our notice on account of a judicious selection of materials and a very liberal allowance of plates. The style is rather perspicuous than correct: but we are willing to believe that not a few of the inaccuracies are merely typographical; and some appear to have originated in the pronunciation of a northern compositor:—thus we find *deed* for *dead*, *hellows* for *bellows*, *span* for *spawn*, *scarred* for *scared*, *wage* for *wedge*, *loan* for *lone*, &c.; and *conformity* is more than once used for *conformation*.

RELI-

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 23. *A Call for Union among the Members of the Established Church;* enforced by a brief Review of the injurious Tendency of Controversies and Contentions among real Christians. 8vo. 3d. Longman and Co.

Reviewers, even if put out of temper, have always a complacent smile in reserve for those authors who endeavour to promote "peace on earth," whether it be in the political or religious world; and, as the tract before us is published with this intention, it could not fail of experiencing the effects of our partiality. In fact, it is intitled to a degree of notice which is not indicated by its humble size and appearance. The author supports the principles of an amiable mind by arguments which ought to be cogent, though, alas! they have never yet been suffered to operate even among Protestants; who can declaim against the absurd pretensions to infallibility, arrogated by the successors of St. Peter at Rome, and yet, in their contentions with one another, often proceed to measures which can scarcely be justified, unless by the actual possesion of that property! How much is it to be wished that positivity and self-conceit could be exchanged for a little candour and mutual forbearance! It is here well observed that 'a perfect unity of judgment can no more be expected in the present life than perfect holiness. There is, however, an unity which we are capable of attaining, the unity of *affection*. There assuredly may be a reciprocation of benevolence between those who are far from a complete coincidence in their notions; so that they may be of the same *heart*, although they are not exactly of the same *mind*.' Unfortunately, those who act on, and are desirous of promoting, this harmonizing sentiment, are generally regarded as indifferent to truth: but this is an ill-natured construction, which, if admitted, must feed the flames of religious strife and division to the end of the world. Let us then resist it, and honour the man, whatever be the language of self-conceited and over-zealous religionists, who retains his own opinions without continually bringing them into a violent collision with those of others; and who is not ashamed to say that he tolerates certain imperfections, and abstains from certain discussions, for the sake of peace and charity.

Art. 24. *Essay on Religion;* being an Attempt to point out the unrivalled Excellence and Beauty of the Christian Doctrine, and the Necessity of paying it an early Attention: Addressed to Young Persons. By John Fullagar. 12mo. 6d. Rivingtons.

This writer's design appears to have been so benevolent, and his little performance contains so much of what may be regarded as good and useful, that we cannot submit the execution of it to the ordeal of criticism. It enters into no disputed points, and respects only that religion or piety towards God which produces morality and all virtuous conduct. The comparison of Christianity with the state and practice of the Heathen world forms one of the best parts of the pamphlet; and we heartily join with Mr. Fullagar in the hope that his admonitions may prove beneficial.

Art. 25. *Ecclesiastical Dignities Ecclesiastical Grievances, if not speedily reformed;* with Observations on Sir William Scott's Residence Bill, &c.; addressed to the Right Hon. Lord Grenville. 8vo. 1s. Jordan.

This author informs us that, being a religionist at heart, instead of wasting his time at a watering-place, he preferred making a tour through a considerable part of England for the purpose of observing the general state of religion. He kept a strict watch over the bishops, and lamented to find that they are not episcopally employed so generally as they ought to be; and at one place, his holy soul was vexed to find the young and gay enlivening an episcopal palace, by dancing to the tune of *The Devil among the Taylors;* instead of an assembly of grave divines praying for grace to renounce "the devil and all his works."—The great complaint is, that the money received by the dignitaries of the church is not spent in promoting its respectability and welfare; and hence he predicts mischief, unless there be a reform. It is not recommended by him to confer on bishops a power to dispense with the residence of the inferior clergy, but to vest it in the laws, with a jury. Let, says he, the law give the indulgence, and let a jury determine it. This thought may merit consideration.

Art. 26. *Sermons* by the late Reverend Thomas Hebbes, A.M. of Trinity College, Cambridge, Vicar of Hernhill in Kent, &c. &c. Published for the Benefit of his Widow. 8vo. pp. 207. 6s. Boards. White. 1802.

The motive of this publication must incline us to wish it success. It is rarely in the power of the clergy to provide for their families; and, as their income ceases at their death, their widows are often plunged from comfortable circumstances into comparative penury. Mrs. Hebbes appears to be an instance of this kind; and she has been induced to print a few of her late husband's Sermons, less with the view of procuring fame for him than with the hope of obtaining relief for herself. When we are informed that they would never have been published but for the loss of a pension which the widow sustained by the death of the late Princess Amelia, and that Mrs. Hebbes is seventy years of age, and labouring under many infirmities, we beg leave to recommend without criticizing; and we sincerely hope that a very respectable addition may hence be derived to her inadequate finances.

Art. 27. *Sacred Biography;* or the History of Jesus Christ. Being a Course of Lectures delivered at the Scots Church, London Wall. By Henry Hunter, D.D. Vol. VII. 8vo. pp. 477. 10s. 6d. Boards. Murray and Highley. 1802.

When, in M. R. Vol. vi. p. 250. N. S. we gave some account of the vith Vol. of Dr. Hunter's Sacred Biography, we were taught to consider it as the last of the series, and dismissed it with some general remarks on the merit of Dr. H. as a preacher. The Doctor, however, was solicited to give a course of Lectures on the History of our Blessed Lord, and in consequence delivered, in the months of Nov. and Dec. 1801, and January 1802, the discourses which constitute

tute the supplemental volume before us; and which display the same merits and defects that were observable in their predecessors. From the nature of the subject, these Lectures are the most interesting of the whole; and to those who are pleased with Dr. H.'s paraphrastic and declamatory manner, they will be an acceptable present. Among his congregation, to whom he dedicated this volume as a token of his affection and gratitude, it will excite serious and mournful recollections, as being the last gift which he can bestow; since, while it has been under our consideration, the public prints have announced his death.

Had the worthy author been still within the reach of our observations, we might have been induced to enter into a particular examination of these Lectures: but, as he is removed from the sphere of sublunary criticism, we shall only remark, for the benefit of a future editor of his works, that, in the table of contents, each of the 23 Lectures which compose this volume has only one general title, *History of Jesus Christ*, and the precise portion of the life of Christ which *each* Lecture discusses and illustrates is not specified. This defect may be easily remedied in a subsequent impression.

Dr. Hunter died at Bristol on the 27th of October last.

Art. 28. *A Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Diocese of Rochester* in the Year 1802, and published at their Request. By John Law, D.D. Archdeacon of Rochester. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons.

More of congratulation and apology, than of admonition, will be found in this address to the Clergy. Their conduct during the late war is mentioned as being not less honourable to themselves than useful to their country; and their general behaviour, though admitted to be sometimes defective, is said to be far less so than sectaries represent. Dr. Law wishes that sectaries would become fellow-labourers with the established Clergy, rather than unkindly traduce them; and his comment on the Articles is designed to point out the light in which subscription to them is commonly considered. 'We beg,' says he, 'to assure our accusers, that we require no other latitude of interpretation in explaining the Articles of our Church, than what may be warranted by considering them as articles of peace, comprehensive in their nature, and in any mysterious point of doctrine to be received "*in such wise as that doctrine is generally set forth to us in Holy Scripture.*" This is a saving clause, to which enlightened Clergymen with tender consciences are forced to have recourse.

Art. 29. *An Appeal to the Society of Friends*, on the Primitive Simplicity of their Christian Principles and Church Discipline, and on some recent Proceedings in that Society. Parts II. and III. 8vo. 2s. Johnson.

Quakers inquisitorial! Exercising spiritual tyranny! Persecuting one of their female preachers for giving it as her opinion that "War is and ever was a moral evil, which man creates to himself"! Had any person who was not of their brotherhood alleged such charges, we should have been ready to pronounce them calumny: but what are we to say when one of its own members not only advances these accusations, but supports them by very minute details? If the facts

here stated be true, they must tend to diminish that respect which the liberal part of mankind have hitherto cherished for the Society of Friends.

The proceedings against Hannah Barnard, for her supposed heretical opinions, are criticised with spirit and sound reasoning by this Appellant; who endeavours to shew that the history of the Society affords no proof that the charges brought against this female would, in any former age, have been countenanced by persons of respectability.

Is, then, the amiable spirit of the Quakers departed? We hope not.—Yet, by the detailed proceedings of the Society of Friends given in Part III. the case of Hannah Barnard (an American travelling preacher) who was formally, and after much deliberation, dismissed from the ministry and sent home, for the freedom of her opinions on war,—miracles,—the miraculous conception, &c. the reader will perceive that more doctrinal vigilance and ecclesiastical coercion exist in the Quaker Church than the world has supposed. The Appellant perseveres in warmly reprobating what he considers as the errors and inconsistencies of his brethren; and in regarding the case on which he comments, if formed into a precedent, as dangerous to the stability, hostile to the liberties, and incompatible with the constitution and reputation of the society.

The deistical nature of Hannah Barnard's principles seems to be the reason of her being rejected as a preacher; and perhaps the Quakers were afraid of openly countenancing her, lest they should subject the society at large to the imputation of infidelity.

The Friends pride themselves in the simplicity or *singleness* of their language, using *thou* instead of *you*; we object not to this: but, when they employ the second personal pronoun in the singular number, the verb should also be in the second person singular; and they should not say thou *possesses*, thou *gives*, thou *had*; of which incorrectnesses we have instances in the speeches quoted in this pamphlet. —They are also apt to use the accusative case, *thee*, for the nominative, *thou*; as *thee knowest*, *thee hast heard*, &c.

POETRY, *and* THE DRAMA.

Art. 30. *The Middlesex Election*; or Poetical Epistles, in the Devonshire Dialect, by Mr. Joseph Budge, in London, to Lord Rolle, at Weymouth. Edited by Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 2s. 6d. Walker.

For indulging his satirical vein on every occasion that presents itself, the facetious P. P. may set up the same defence which Falstaff makes for robbing; "It is my vocation, Hal, and it is no harm for a man to labour in his vocation." Yes, laugh he will; and what is worse, though we disapprove many of his tricks, he at times makes us laugh with him, even without asking our leave; and by destroying the gravity of our court, he in some measure carries his point with us, as a witty member will influence a parliamentary vote by putting the house in good humour. If we expostulate with a laugh on our countenance, he will be more pleased than hurt; and if we do not

smile, he will regard us as a set of the dullest fellows that ever snored in a garret. This is a dilemma, certainly: but, as reviewing is *our* "vocation," we are not to be foiled by little difficulties. P. P. shall be pleased, and our duty to the public discharged at the same time. As Peter has adopted so ludicrous a way of throwing stones at certain *great folks*, may we not seem to encourge him as Æsop did the boys? and then, possibly, he may find out his mistake without accusing us of either ill nature or dullness.

The Middlesex Election is here laughably detailed in the Devonshire dialect. Then 'Mr. Budge quitteth the subject of the election for a conversation with our Ex-minister Pitt'; and the following is the account of the interview, which is transmitted to Lord Rolle at Weymouth, with the comparison between the court game of *put*, and the country game of *put*:

'My LORD, I giss you wish to hear
What vokes pallaver here and there,
All about Squire PITT's disgrace:
Ah, Lord! poor disappointed fellow,
I daant believe he gitt'th zo mellow,
Not zince he lost his place.

'I zeed'n in Saint James's street;
Close by his howze, we chanc'd to meet:
"Ah! BUDGE," zaid he to *me*,
"How doth Lord Rolle do, by the bye?—"
"Hearty 's a farmer, Sir," zaid I—
"And how be you, Sir—hæ?"

"Why, Budge," zaid he (but looking blue),
"Thank God, that I be well enew,
Considerin ev'ry thing:"
He zaid it too in zich a way,
As plain as thoff I heard un zay,
Oh, Budge, I've lost the King.

'You know, my Lord, when in wet weather
You and me play'd Put together,
The *King* would win the *Knave*;
The Queen, you know, cou'd do zo too—
Slam off a went, without more ado:
Nort could his bacon save.

'But, Lord! in CURTS 'tis alter'd quite:
Ev'n *I*, with my poor blinking zight,
Zee quite a diff'rent thing—
Vur there, agosh! 'tis not the same;
For there they *backwards* play the game,
And *knaves* can win a *King*.'

We cannot say, however, that the whole poem is equally good.

ART. 31. *The Scum uppermost when the Middlesex Porridge-Pot Boils Over!!* An Heroic Election Ballad, with explanatory Notes.—

Accompanied with an admonitory Nod to a blind Horse. 4to. 2s. Sold by all Booksellers.

To get the laugh on our side is often preferable to getting the argument; and during political contentions, which generate violence and animosity, the indulgence of pleasantry ought to be encouraged; for wit, even though it be severe, will force a smile; and when a smile is excited, some of the fangs of mischief will be drawn. In the pamphlet before us, the butt on which Ridicule exhausts his quiver is Sir Francis Burdett, with his party. The scene is laid at the Brentford Election; and in order that the picture may be sufficiently *warm* and *glowing*, the Devil himself makes a conspicuous figure among the *Dramatis Personæ*, and is one of the chief orators on this celebrated occasion. Indeed, he is so very earnest in the cause, that he forgets himself, and is so completely out of character as to exhort Hell to be pious and go to prayers. *Hear him! Hear him!*

"Ho! ho!"—cries the Devil, "come bring me my boots!
Here's a kettle of fish that my appetite suits.
To Brentford an airing
I'll take—'tis past bearing
That my friends should be fetter'd by Justice Mainwaring:
But young B——TT I like, and we'll form a connection
To abolish jail, gibbet, and House of Correction.

"Fellow fiends, be so good as *to put up your pray'rs*,
That success may attend on OUR FIRM above stairs!
Let your zeal be now shown,
Or THEY'll sure be o'erthrown
Who belong to a *House* near as old as your own.
Nay, don't turn up your noses!—I mean no reflection;
An *Old House* owns their claim: 'tis the House of Correction."

(*Enter Satan on the Hustings.*)

"Frank B——TT for ever!—Poll on;—never flinch!
See my hoof, boys! You know your old friend at a pinch!
Do you suffrages lack?
Only swear white is black;
And your Mill makes four hundred *good* votes in a crack!
Take the oath! honest C——— o'er-rules each objection:
Who's afraid of jail, gibbet, or House of Correction?'

The heat of the hustings appears, however, to be too much for the Devil's delicate constitution: he is soon overcome; and, retiring to his own fire-side in order *to cool himself*, he gently hints to the tag-rags that he prefers Hell, bad as it is, to their company:

"Brave B—n—TT, adieu! You've blown up a fine flame;
'Tis so hot, I'll return to the place whence I came,
And tell my grim Quorum
With how much decorum
Your tag-rags of Middlesex drive all before 'm.
'Twill be long ere my Black-birds attain such perfection,
What's Hell when compar'd with YOUR BRENTFORD ELECTION!"

His

His Satanic Majesty makes so bad a figure in this ballad, and is so affronting to the party in whose cause he appears, that he must be as little satisfied with the boiling of the Middlesex Porridge-Pot as the satirist himself. This is unfortunate.

In the 'admonitory Nod', which is merely personal, the poet himself nods: but he cunningly endeavours to help out the satire by some caricature prints.

Art. 32. *Delays and Blunders;* a Comedy, in Five Acts. As performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. By Frederick Reynolds. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Rees.

This play is in the usual style of Mr. Reynolds's compositions. With incidents often at variance with nature and probability, and characters boldly *caricatured*, it is supported by lively and whimsical dialogue, a few lucky strokes at the times and popular sentiments (*ad captandum*), and an occasional pun or equivoque.—*Par exemple:* a sailor says;

'Psha—don't talk of it—she's a charming creature!—but a wife!—do you know, in all the storms and battles I've encounter'd, that was my consolation—says I—"Never mind—blow on, my boys! you're nothing to the *gales* of matrimony."'

Now for a picture of high life:

'*Sapling.* Last night at Lady Squeeze's route, I shew'd the most barbarous ignorance—my wife told me if I play'd at cards, I must pay for them—very well!—so far I did right—I pop'd down my half crown for card money—but, as luck would have it, a man came round with cakes and lemonade, and, thinks I, if Lady Squeeze can't afford to pay for one thing, of course she can't for another, and so, Ecod!—I pop'd down half a crown for them also.

'*Henry.* And I should have done the same—they can get nothing by cakes and lemonade—but I thought they got enough by cards without charging their friends for them.—Well!—and the farm-house, Honoria? Is the old farm-house as much beautified as its owner?

'*Honoria.* Quite.—Isn't it, guardian?

'*Sapling (with a satisfactory smile).* Yes:—the barn is turn'd into a ball-room—the pigeon-house over it into a billiard-room—the calf-house near it, into a concert-room—and the house for cows and horn'd cattle, into a state bed-room for me and Mrs. Sapling. Then the parlour is so enlarg'd—do you know, it will now sup a hundred enemies?

'*Henry.* Enemies!—You mean friends.

'*Sapling.* No—I don't—I mean enemies—to be sure I thought as you did, and so I told Mrs. Sapling.—Says I, "Now's the time, my life, to be reveng'd on your enemies—mortify them, by not asking them."—"No," says she, "I'll mortify them by asking them!—the delight of visiting people is to vex each other, and my superior rooms will goad them to the soul!—Oh, yes:—and for friends, Mr. Sapling—never enlarge your parlour on their account—a closet will at any time hold them!"'

We know not whether the lawyers will, on the whole, deem themselves obliged to Mr. Reynolds; for, though he has drawn the character

racter of a *conscientious* attorney in the musical Mr. Paul Postpone, his *Delays and Blunders* are so dangerous and absurd, that he would certainly ruin most of his clients and disgust all the rest.

Art. 33. *A Tale of Mystery*, a Melo-Drame; as performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. By Thomas Holcroft. 2d Edition. With Etchings after Designs by Tresham. 8vo. 2s. R. Phillips.

We have here a species of drama which is rather new to the English stage, and which, as well as its name, is derived from the French: but Mr. Holcroft has refrained, in his prefatory advertisement, from saying any thing 'of the nature, powers, and scenic effects of the Melo-Drame, because his thoughts must necessarily be given with too much brevity and haste.' It may be described, in brief, as a pantomime with the admission of dialogue: for so much depends on the music, the scenery, and the gesticulation of the actors, that this term must form its principal characteristic; and we should have witnessed the representation of it, in order to speak fully and decisively of its powers and effects. The scene is laid in Savoy, and the incidents depend on the common story of plots and assassinations so usually attributed to the Alpine regions: but the dialogue is forcible, and suited to the different characters. We think, however, that it was ill-judged to put the common *slip-slapisms* of the vulgar English into the mouth of the servant Fatima; both as they assist more strongly to destroy the illusion, and as they tend to weaken the effect of the humane and even dignified sentiments which the author has assigned to this faithful domestic. For example, addressing her master in reply to his question, "Have I not a right to do as I please in my own house?" she says, "No, Sir; you have no *right* to do *wrong* any where." This apparent allusion to the well known line,

"The right divine of Kings to govern wrong,"

does not assimilate with such expressions as "*afeard* as I was,"—"my cries *was* heard," &c.

Mr. Holcroft acknowleges that 'the principal incidents, many of the thoughts, and much of the manner of telling the story,' are derived from a French drama.—The etchings represent three of the principal periods of the fable.

Art. 34. *Hear both Sides*; a Comedy in Five Acts, as it is performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury-lane. By Thomas Holcroft. 8vo. 2s. 6d. R. Phillips. 1803.

Our readers know that this play has encountered, and has survived, some opposition to its performance, principally on the ground of an alleged want of comic vivacity. Mr. Holcroft takes notice of this circumstance, in a very characteristic preface; and he observes that the best answer to such a charge is found 'in the bursts of laughter at the comic parts, and the deep attention and unceasing applause with which the serious scenes of this comedy are nightly received.'—We cannot speak on this point, because we have not been present at any performance of the play: but, in giving our opinion from a perusal of it,

we

we have to remark that it certainly abounds more in those moral observations and deductions by which, greatly to his credit, Mr. Holcroft's writings are distinguished, than the generality of modern dramatic compositions; while, at the same time, it cannot be said to be destitute of those lighter scenes in which the sprightliness of a comedy should be maintained.—The dialogue is appropriate and forcible, the characters are well supported, and the sentiments are laudable. Neither in the plot nor in the personages, however, do we perceive much novelty; and Fairfax, the honest lawyer, whose apparently bad but really honorable conduct makes it necessary to *Hear Both Sides*, reminds us too much of Old Fable, in Colman's comedy of the *Man of Business*.

POLITICS.

Art. 35. *The Picture of Parliament*; or, A History of the General Election of 1802. Containing the most remarkable Speeches delivered on the Hustings, or otherwise published; the Names of all the Candidates; the State of the Poll at the Close of each Election; the Number of Voters, and the Decisions of the House of Commons on the Right of Election in each Borough. To which is added an alphabetical List of the elected Members, serving as an Index to the Work. Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. V. Griffiths.

The design and utility of this work are sufficiently manifest from the copious title-page. It appears to us that the principal value of the publication consists in its record of the number of voters and the right of voting in each borough, with the date of the parliamentary decisions by which that right is regulated.

Of the election for the remarkable Borough of Old Sarum, the following account is given:

'The election for the borough of Old Sarum was held in a temporary booth erected in a corn-field, under a tree which marks the former boundary of the old town, not a vestige of which has been standing in the memory of man; the several burgages which give the right of voting, being now without a dwelling for a human being. Mr. Dean, the bailiff of the borough, having read the precept for the election, and caused proclamation thereof, read the bribery act, and gone through all the legal ceremonies, the Rev. Dr. Skinner rose and nominated Nicholas Vansittart, and Henry Alexander, Esqrs. "from a thorough conviction that their public conduct would be such as would give satisfaction and do honour to their constituents." The other electors acquiescing in this nomination, and no other candidate offering, the proclamation was thrice made for any gentleman disposed to do so, to come forward, and the bailiff declared the above two gentlemen to be duly elected.

'There were five electors present at this election, (besides the bailiff of the borough, who lives at Wimborne,) viz. the Rev. Dr. Skinner, of the Close; the Rev. Mr. Burrough, of Abbott's Ann; William Dyke, Esq. of Syrencot; Mr. Massey and Mr. Brunsdon, both occupiers of land within the limits of the borough. The above account is thus particularly given, to rectify several prevalent mistakes relative to this celebrated borough, and to shew that the election is conducted

conducted in a manner every way consonant to the law of the land, and the constitution of Parliament.'

Though the election is here said to be conducted according to the forms of law, no notice is taken of the operation of the *interest* of any individual, over this formidable body of voters!

Various inaccuracies in course occur in this work, for which the publisher apologizes. In the account of the Westminster election, it has been omitted to state the number of voters after the first day's poll, though the singularity of the contest renders that circumstance a matter of curiosity.

Art. 36. *The Germanic Empire reduced into Departments under the Prefecture of the Elector of Brandenburgh.* Translated from the French. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale.

In this work, the original of which is said to have been written in German, the conduct of Bonaparte is not only reprobated with great severity, but he is directly stigmatized as an usurper; and the wish of his heart is said to be to place usurpers on every throne in Europe. With this anathema fulminated against the Chief Consul, is combined a defence of the divine right of kings, at least, of kings of the *first order*; 'to whom, (as this writer informs us, and he must himself have received his knowlege by revelation,) the Divinity has in some respect delegated his power over the human race.' From such an author, the plan of German indemnities must receive the most pointed condemnation. We can allow him, indeed, to lament the hard fate of the Emperor, whose power is greatly curtailed by the additional weights thrown into the scale of France and Prussia; and who, as the head of the Empire, has been forced to make very great sacrifices: but, when we think how much blood has been lately spilt, we hesitate immediately to allow with him, that 'it is the general interest of Europe to arm and extricate that monarch from this critical position.' The changes in Germany may be regarded as the effects of French conquest; so that the principle of the indemnities is no more subversive of the stability of states, and inimical to the law of nations, than the victor's sword always has been and always will be.

Art. 37. *The Case of Switzerland briefly stated.* By an Eye-Witness. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

The situation of the Swiss has been so fully detailed in the public prints, that little which is new is left for this Eye-witness to relate. Together with greater powers on the Continent, these sons of Liberty have been forced to yield to the (at present) resistless influence of France; and to receive a Constitution from the Chief Consul, who condescends to guarantee their *independence*.—To the statement of the Case of the Swiss, the following apostrophe is here subjoined: 'Poor Inhabitants of Switzerland! I watched your first exertions.—With you I shared the transport which the successful progress of a cause so sacred was calculated to inspire. With you I felt the influence of hopes approved by reason that is yet a stranger to the dark designs of heartless and insatiable ambition. Your present anguish and disappointment now are mine.—Do not utterly despair.—The day shall arrive, when the measure of iniquity shall at length be

filled,

filled, and when, appearing with redoubled splendour, the Star of Liberty shall rise, to set no more, on the heroic Countrymen of the Immortal TELL!' It is consoling to diffuse the rays of hope; and, as Switzerland seems ordained to follow the fate of France, let hope suggest that some benefits may arise from acting in unison with her.

The dedication of this pamphlet is subscribed, *Francis Lewis Olason.*

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 38. *Public Characters* of 1802, and 1803. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips.

We have observed, in our accounts of the former volumes of this singular compilement, that it is continued with unremitting attention to the information and entertainment of its readers.—The obvious objection, that the delineation of *Living* Characters must always be expected to proceed from the pencil of *Panegyric*, or of *Enmity*, must ever remain: but, allowing this objection its full weight, must we therefore be deprived of that useful information, and of the knowlege of those facts, which we receive by this new and agreeable mode of *early* intelligence?

In the volume now before us, we have had the pleasure of perusing a variety of very interesting memoirs; among which, we have been gratified by the information afforded us by the satisfactory detail here given of the truly ingenious Mr. Watt *. This Gentleman's discoveries and great improvements respecting that amazingly curious piece of mechanism, the *Steam Engine*, must for ever consign his name to one of the highest places in the annals of useful science, and of the deepest researches of human genius into the inmost recesses of Nature: where all her hidden stores of wonder and astonishment are deposited,—far beyond the ken of common eyes, or the general grasp of human ability.

Art. 39. *Copy of a Correspondence between the Right Hon. the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, the Right Hon. the Earl of St. Vincent, K. B., the Right Hon. the Earl Spencer, K. G., and Vice Admiral Sir John Orde, Bart.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Faulder.

While the Mediterranean Fleet was under the command of Lord St. Vincent, during the late war, Sir John Orde served under his Lordship as Rear-Admiral; and while in that situation, he conceived himself to be aggrieved by the appointment of a junior Admiral to a service on which he thought his own rank intitled him to be employed, by several rigorous acts of the commander in chief, and finally by being abruptly ordered to leave the fleet and return to England, without any known cause. Sir John applied to the Admiralty for a court-martial on Lord St. Vincent, in consequence of these events, but was refused: he then, on his Lordship's arrival in

* The worthy partner of Mr. Boulton of Birmingham; of whose prodigious progress in the cultivation of the mechanic arts, and philosophic inventions of modern ingenuity, we gave an account in our Review for June last, p. 158.

England,

England, sought for the personal satisfaction of a gentleman, but the Earl was prohibited from granting it by the express order of the King, and the police bound the parties to keep the peace; and thus defeated on both these points, Sir John now submits a statement of his case to the consideration of the public.

It is not for us to make comments on this delicate subject; and we shall therefore only add that a perusal of this pamphlet affords one proof, among many others, of the extremely rigorous discipline which Lord St. Vincent is well known to preserve. If any unfortunate authors complain of critical severity, let them read this statement, and be resigned.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 40. Preached in Lambeth Chapel, 27th June, 1802, at the Consecration of the Right Rev. George Isaac Huntingford, D.D. Lord Bishop of Gloucester. By the Rev. William Howley, M.A. Fellow of Winchester College. 4to. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

The public are here presented with a well composed and ingenious discourse, from Luke, xxii. 25, 26. Whatever little difficulty or obscurity might occur respecting any part of these verses, the meaning of the whole passage is clear; recommending to all stations the gentle, unassuming, benevolent spirit and demeanour, which are essential to the Christian character, and which are urged in the conclusion of this sermon.

We shall not contend with the author concerning the antiquity of prelatical or episcopal government; nor will we pronounce, with him, on 'its rejection by later Christians, as an act of misguided zeal, if not of unwarrantable presumption:' but, without farther remarks on this laboured composition, we shall present to the reader Mr. Howley's paraphrase of the two verses on which the discourse is founded, with the note by which it is accompanied. Having justly remarked that the disciples of our Lord were so far infected with the common prejudice, as to look for the erection of a temporal kingdom, in which they were desirous of pre-eminence, he adds;

'It is the object of our Saviour, in the words of my text, to rectify this misconception. "The kings of the Pagan nations, *he tells them*, assume an arbitrary power, and the benefits derived to their subjects from this exercise of authority, are not considered as flowing from any obligation of duty on the part of the sovereign, but are gratefully acknowledged as the effects of his spontaneous benevolence *. But in my

* This interpretation of the latter clause of ver. 25. (και οι εξουσιαζοντες αυτων ευεργεται καλουνται) will not, I trust, appear forced or unsatisfactory, though I am not aware that it is supported by the authority of any commentator. Our Saviour is usually understood to speak only with reference to the pompous titles assumed by the Heathen princes. But since the appellation of ευεργετης is peculiarly modest, when compared with the ostentatious style of Eastern monarchs, it may reasonably be supposed, that the passage has a farther import. The corresponding clause of St. Matthew is somewhat differently

my kingdom you are not to expect these selfish advantages. The pre-eminence to which you aspire, involves the performance of the most laborious and painful duties; it demands an extraordinary degree of humility and self-denial, and imposes an obligation of ministering as servants, to the wants and necessities of your inferiors. Far from contributing to the gratification of pride, or the indulgence of pleasure, it is a pre-eminence in toils, in perils, and in sufferings."

It may be proper to add the remark which is directly connected with the paraphrase:

'In this view of the passage, it appears that our Saviour neither intended to mark the distinction between temporal and spiritual power, nor to prohibit the rulers of his Church from accepting worldly honours; but merely to inform them what *would* be their lot, and what *ought* to be their temper and conduct in the kingdom, to which at his departure they were appointed. It follows, that no such prohibition (respecting worldly honours and emoluments) is contained in these expressions, unless it could be demonstrated, that the enjoyment of temporal advantages is incompatible with a conscientious discharge of duty, and a profound humility of spirit.'

Art. 41. *The Anniversary Sermon of the Royal Humane Society*, preached at Grosvenor Chapel, April 4; and, with local Alterations, at Holy Roods, Southampton, June 20; and at St. Helier's in the Island of Jersey, July 18, 1802. By R. Valpy, D.D. F.A.S. Master of Reading School. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

Though the benevolent object of this Society is well known, it is perhaps more extensive than is generally apprehended, particularly as it relates to the effects of lightning, shipwreck, &c. Several appropriate and impressive discourses have been delivered on its anniversaries; to which number, Dr. Valpy here presents an agreeable and affectionate addition. He could speak with the greater sensibility, as one of his own children, 'apparently dead in convulsions, experienced the happy effects of the Resuscitative process;—another, (it is added in the note,) deprived of the same assistance, leaves to her parents the consoling hope, that she is now an angel in heaven, for *of such is the kingdom of God.*'—Many notes of different kinds accompany the sermon; the text of which is, 1 Kings, xvii. 22. At the end of the pamphlet, we find the usual Appendix, containing several useful instructions and remarks.

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ferently expressed, και οι μεγαλοι κατεξουσιαζουσιν αυτων: *Their great men exercise despotic authority over them*; i. e. an authority which allows no rights in the subject, and no obligations on the sovereign. In a government founded on this abuse of power, whatever is done for the good of the people will be considered by the governor as the act of his own voluntary beneficence. St. Luke therefore has expressed the consequence implied in the words of St. Matthew. Different explanations may be found in Grotius, Hammond, Le Clerc, and other paraphrasts and commentators. But to whatever opinion the reader may incline, the general sense of the passage will not be materially affected, nor the argument which I have endeavoured to build on it.'

We

We have received a very candid letter from Mr. Patteson, in consequence of the article in our last Review, on his Thanksgiving Sermon. He may rest assured that our strictures did not proceed from any hostile disposition towards him, but arose, altogether, from a sense of that duty which we owe to the public. If we disapproved, we conceived that it was not without reason; and the author himself, with an ingenuousness which does him honour, acknowleges that in some places he suffered mistakes to escape him. We are accused, however, of having in one instance misrepresented him; and, on a reconsideration of the passage, we are ready to admit the charge. The sentiment that 'revenge, as an implement of war, is not less legitimate than the mechanical means of destruction,' does not attach to Mr. Patteson; and the interrogatory form of the sentence betrayed us into the mistake: but our remark that his views were not sufficiently dispassionate did not rest on one particular period; it resulted from the general impression which the whole work left on our minds. The Sermon and the Notes contain, indeed, affecting pictures of the distresses of '*misery-making war*:' but they are followed by passages calculated to reconcile us to its effects when they happen, which in a Thanksgiving Sermon for the Peace were not absolutely necessary: thus at p. 103, the preacher observes, 'If wars must be, there must be armies; if armies, there must be recruits; if recruits, they must be either allured or compelled into the service; the lives of sons must be endangered, and the feelings of parents must be racked.'—The Christian Minister is not required, especially on such an occasion, thus to prepare our feelings for misery-making war.

We are again obliged to our old Correspondent *Agricola* for his friendly communication: but we should have been better pleased if the circumstances, to which it relates, were more consonant to our wishes, and more reputable to human nature. With regard to the praise, however, which our correspondent says we have bestowed on the 'constancy and patriotism' of some men whose recent tergiversation intitles them to other treatment, let him remember, and perhaps they will feel, that

"Praise undeserv'd is censure in disguise;"

though it is vain to expect, in such cases, any operation from the opinions of *bye standers*. Fears, or hopes, have a greatly paramount influence.

The allegorical rhymes, signed S. S. refer to a work which we have not yet seen.

Philalethes is requested to accept our thanks for his polite letter: but the length to which his observations have extended, and the nature of the subject, preclude us from offering them to our readers, and from entering into a discussion of them.

Mr. Montagu's letter is just received.

☞ In the last Review, P. 157. l. 10. for 'neither,' r. *either*; and P. 185. l. 24. for 'comparative of the charges,' r. *of the comparative charges*.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For APRIL, 1803.

Art. I. *Travels in Italy*, by the Abbé Barthélémy, Author of the Travels of Anacharsis the Younger; in a Series of Letters written to the celebrated Count Caylus. With an Appendix, containing several Pieces never before published, by the Abbé Winkelman, Father Jacquier, the Abbé Zarillo, and other learned Men. Translated from the French. 8vo. pp. 420. 8s. Boards. Robinsons. 1802.

It is not the malignity of envy alone which contributes to shade the memory of departed merit; since the rapacity of heirs, or even the blind partiality of friendship, has too often brought discredit on acknowleged worth and talents. The literary fame of the Abbé Barthélémy might have safely reposed on a fair and lasting monument, the result of many and laborious vigils: but, in committing to the press the posthumous letters which now invite our attention, M. Sérieys (the Editor) boasts of the genuine service which he has rendered to literature and the arts. We rather fear that he has disappointed a very numerous class of readers, and conveyed little distinct information to those who compose the limited circle of professed antiquaries. We doubt not that the letters were penned by the elegant scholar whose name they bear; nor do we deny that they manifest a spirit of enthusiastic and persevering research, a patience of minute erudition, and a few strokes of Attic wit and Gallic sprightliness: but we cannot believe that their author ever intended that they should see the light, much less that they should be presented to the public under the title of *Travels in Italy*. Absorbed in the contemplation or collection of antient remains, the Abbé transmitted frequent but hasty and imperfect hints to his friend Count Caylus; whose congenial taste and character he admired, and whose impatience he was willing to gratify by notices of the leading objects of his favourite pursuits; reserving detailed discussion for the ease and leisure of conversation. We need not wonder, then, if the public should complain of a sameness of subject which

pervades these letters; nor if the adept who resorts to them, in all the fondness of expectation, should be more tantalized than instructed.

Of the few passages to which the above strictures do not apply, we beg leave to quote one relative to the *greatest curiosity* in the Abbé's collection—an *honest*, *learned*, and *merry* cardinal:

'I trouble you with another letter, my dear count, but it is on a subject of importance to the academy. The place of foreign academician was vacated by cardinal Quirini, of typographic memory. It became a question, whether, as it has not the title of *honorary*, cardinal Passionei would accept it. I was desired by the academy, or rather by some of our brother members, to address him on this particular. I have done so; and he has answered, like a man of sense, that the place flatters him more than those follies of rank and title, which either signify nothing, or else signify too much, of which true merit has no need, and which are too heavy a burden for borrowed merit to bear.'—

'I shall say nothing to you of his birth, his dignities, or even his place of librarian to the Vatican—circumstances splendid in themselves, but which he overlooks, and which are certainly beneath his real merit. But I will tell you of his familiarity with all kinds of learning; of the protection which he affords to talents; of a forty years' correspondence with all the literati of Europe; of the particular acquaintance that he formerly had with Renaudot, Longuerue, Boileau, Reland, Cuper, Gronovius, and many other great men, who on numberless occasions consulted him, and who had the most singular veneration for him. I will tell you of an immense library which he has collected, in which all the learned at Rome find infallible assistance, and with which he is as well acquainted, as you are with antiquity and the arts. I will tell you of the great pains he has taken to augment the valuable store of antiquities in the Capitol, of the enlightened taste which he has in that respect acquired, and of a considerable collection of antique inscriptions, which he possesses at his country house, and which he is going to publish. I would tell you also of the particular esteem he has expressed for count Caylus, if I did not fear, that the idea of a personal motive might injure his cause with you. But what will influence you most is his marked character: a habit of truth and frankness, which has procured him the hatred of most of the cardinals; a habit of firmness, which renders him the dread of the religious societies; a habit of probity, that has been always acknowledged, even in a country where craft and hypocrisy disguise every virtue and every vice. Do you wish for more? I will give you another still stronger trait. He completely fuddled us yesterday with a most excellent wine, which he keeps expressly for the pleasure of men of letters, whose curiosity may bring them into this barbarous country.'

With this finished picture, we are tempted to contrast a rough sketch by the President de Brosses, an account of whose enter-

entertaining letters appeared in the supplementary numbers of our 33d and 34th volumes, N. S.

"Passionei of Fossombrone, nuncio in Switzerland, and at Vienna, a great admirer of German genius, secretary to the briefs—open and plain in his manners, and very free in conversation—has a sovereign contempt of the stately demeanour of his brother cardinals, is little esteemed by several of them, for whom he entertains still less regard. Some accuse him of veiling duplicity under a shew of extreme frankness.—He affects much the character of a man of letters."

On a subject so curious yet so little understood as Etruscan antiquities, we are glad to collect even scraps, when they fall from the hand of a master:

'I have applied myself to Etruscan literature, reading what has been said of it, and ruminating on what might still farther be said. I was on the point of passing a week at Cortona, for the purpose of copying the tables of Eugubio, of which an exact resemblance has been engraved from the originals, under the direction of Buonaroti. I have transcribed two of them. There is another similar copy, I have been told, at Rome, which I am endeavouring to find. You will no doubt tell me, they have been published; but I have no faith in books, after what I have so often seen. I read the Etruscan language tolerably well, which has furnished me with many new ideas.

'Its origin, as you know, is yet to be found. I shall not discover it; but, as I travel along, my mind is fully occupied with the subject, and it affords me the truest pleasure. I shall bring with me all the books that have been written upon it, of which not a twentieth part are known in France. I shall not detail to you the civilities I received from the academicians of Cortona. The walls of that town are very ancient, and are supposed to have been erected by the Etruscans. Stones of an enormous size compose the foundation. Take notice, that I respect the Etruscans as profoundly as you do the Egyptians. Which ought to have the preference, will be a point of frequent dispute between us; and, when I get into a passion, I shall address you in the following terms: *Esunu inumek, pircigitu.*'

The editor of these letters has eked out the volume by an appendix of nearly 200 pages, consisting of eleven miscellaneous papers.

Nos. I. and II. contain a few additional circumstances with regard to the early part of the Abbé's excursion into Italy.

III. Some learned and ingenious memoranda relative to a MS. at Bologna, on the art of applying colours to glass.

IV. The curious reader will probably regard this number as one of the most interesting portions of the work; for it comprizes the Abbé Barthélémy's notices of the cabinet of Portici, and the observations of Count Caylus and other learned antiquaries on the ruins of Herculaneum: but they will not

bear abridgement, and are yet too long for insertion in our pages.

V. A short account of the literary labours of Mazzochi.

VI. We have been too much entertained with M. Barthélémy's own account of his first interview with Baïardi, not to give it a place here.

" Baïardi, that vast and indefatigable compiler, respectable from the qualities of his heart, and terrible by his memory to those who hear him talk or venture to read him, had cultivated every species of literature, and collected in his head an enormous though indigested mass of knowledge, which escaped from him confusedly. He set out with a general catalogue of the remains preserved at Portici, in one volume *folio*; and as the engravings, which should represent them, were not yet ready, he obtained the king's permission to place at the head of the great commentary a preface, intended to point out the epoch, the consequences and the use of the researches at Herculaneum. He published the first part of this work in *seven volumes quarto*, without having entered upon his subject.

" I shall depict his manner, as a guide to those who may be tempted to imitate him. An explainer of these antiquities should make known their proportions; what means then must he employ?—Here a long discussion on the measurement of the Assyrians, the Babylonians, the Persians, the Greeks and the Romans, is introduced. The monuments were the greater part drawn from the ruins of Herculaneum: this name, the same as that of Heraclea, was given to a number of towns: all these towns therefore are spoken of, with a digression into the field of ancient geography. Herculaneum was founded by Hercules; but there were several heroes of that name, the Tyrian, the Egyptian, the Grecian, &c., and accordingly their respective achievements must be enumerated, and it must be ascertained to whom our Herculaneum owed its origin: and here we have another digression into the regions of mythology.

" It is easily seen, that researches like these would soon bring the author to the end even of a dozen volumes; unfortunately he was desired to stop in his glorious career; and some time after he returned to Rome, where I went to see him. I asked him if he had finished his Preface: he answered, that he had suspended it for a while, and that, to divert himself in the mean time, he was employed in an abridgment of universal history, which he should comprize in twelve volumes duodecimo, and that he should begin with the solution of a very important problem to history and astronomy, which was the fixing the point of the heavens in which God placed the sun at the creation of the world. He had just discovered this point, and marked it out to me upon the celestial globe.

" I have perhaps already been too diffuse upon this signor Baïardi; but as I write for myself only, or at best but for a few friends, I wish to give a sketch of his character, and recount to myself the first visit that I made him at Naples. I found him in a large hall; a violent cold kept him on a sofa, the appearance of which was a proof of the length of its services. He was dressed in such antique garments,

garments, that one might fairly have taken them for the spoils of some ancient inhabitant of Herculaneum. He was at work with his amanuensis. I begged him to proceed, and I sat me down on the foot of the sofa. Certain monks of Calabria had been consulting him on an heresy that began to spread in their neighbourhood. They had just learned, that one Copernicus had maintained, that the earth moved round the sun. 'What then was to become of that passage in scripture, which declared the earth immoveable, and of that Joshua, who made the sun to stand still? to say nothing of the testimony of our senses, or how we were to keep ourselves from falling, if our heads all night long were downwards?' The prelate answered diffusely and learnedly to all these questions, rescued the honour of the holy books, pointed out the laws of gravity, opposed the testimony of the senses, and concluded by advising the monks not to trouble the ashes of Copernicus which had been so long cold, but to sleep on themselves in the same tranquillity they had hitherto enjoyed.

"Having finished his answer, he renewed his apologies, and I informed him, that being sent into Italy by the king of France in search of such medals as were wanting to the royal cabinet, of which I had the care, I had added to this duty another, that of becoming acquainted with men the most distinguished for their learning. Upon this he pulled off his cap, redoubled his civilities, coughed a long while, and then begged leave to introduce to me signora Maria Laura, his very old friend, whose virtues equalled her learning and talents, who understood latin, greek, and hebrew, designed and painted like Apelles, played on the lyre like Orpheus, and worked embroidery like the daughters of Minos. This eulogy was not finished when this signora Maria Laura made her appearance. Her age might be from sixty to sixty five years, and his from sixty-five to seventy.

"In the course of the conversation, he assured me, that he was descended from the chevalier Bayard, and that he was a Frenchman, not only by birth, but from inclination also. He then complained of the manner in which the works at Herculaneum were conducted, of the negligence of the ministry with respect to the manuscripts, and of the jealousy excited against himself by the distinguished treatment which he had experienced from the king. By some accident or other I mentioned count Caylus, at which he cried out, 'What! you know the count? he is my very good friend. Do you know, signora Laura, this count Caylus is one of the greatest noblemen in France; one of the most learned men in the world; he presides over all the academies in Paris, is the protector of all the arts, understands every thing, writes upon every thing, and his works are the admiration of all Europe.' Then abruptly addressing himself to me, he says, in badly accented French, 'What has he written, this Caylus? I have never seen any of his works:' and without waiting for my answer he rung the bell, and made the servant bring in a large box of papers, which I found was a collection of latin poems. He proposed reading to me a piece or two: 'I should be delighted,' said I, 'but you have so bad a cough, signor.' He answered, that he would sacrifice every

thing to the pleasure of affording me some amusement; and with this view he chose a poem entitled, *an anatomical description of the brain.* Exclusive of my ignorance of the subject, the manner in which the Italians pronounce latin is so very different from ours, that the charms of his verse were wholly lost upon me. Maria Laura, who perceived it, interrupted him when he had read about a hundred verses, by observing, that so fine a subject, to be properly felt, ought to be studied profoundly, and proposed, that he should read instead of it his *Fountain of Trevi.* 'Signora is in the right,' says he to me; 'you come from Rome, you must have admired often this charming fountain; I was there when it was discovered, the *æstro poëtico* seized upon me, and I have diffused it pretty copiously over the following piece.' Again I reminded him of his cough, but it was in vain, and I had no alternative but to listen, &c."

No. VII. contains some curious remarks of the Abbé Zarillo and Father Paciandi, on the counterfeit paintings of Guerra.

VIII. Copy and translation of a letter from Count Rezzonico to Count Caylus, relative to disquisitions on the works of the two Plinys.

IX. Translation of a dissertation on the antiquities of Rome, by the Abbé Barthélémy; long since published in the memoirs of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres.

X. Father Jacquier's measurement of the Coliseum.

XI. In this number, will be found an interesting outline of Travels in Italy, on the plan of those of Anacharsis in Greece:

'This subject (says the Abbé) exhibited to my view pictures so rich, multifarious, and instructive, that I could with difficulty suppress the desire I felt of entering upon it: but perceiving afterwards, that it would require a species of study that was new to me, and recollecting, that an excursion into Greece about the time of Philip, father of Alexander, without drawing me out of the track of my ordinary occupations, would afford me an opportunity of comprising in a given space every thing interesting in the Grecian history, as well as all the details of the sciences, arts, religion, manners, and usages, with which history does not burden itself, I eagerly embraced this idea, and after revolving it for a time in my mind, I began my task in 1757, immediately after my return from Italy.'

As an English edition of the Abbé Barthélémy's memoirs of his own life is in the press, we forbear to transcribe the concluding pages of this performance.

Our extracts render it unnecessary to dwell on the merit of the translation; which, if not a model of English pure and undefiled, is, nevertheless, intitled to a creditable rank among performances of a similar description.

ART.

ART. II. *Naval Chronology*; or, An Historical Summary of Naval and Maritime Events, from the Time of the Romans, to the Treaty of Peace 1802. With an Appendix. By Isaac Schomberg, Esq. Captain in the Royal Navy. 8vo. 5 Vols. 2l. 2s. Boards. Egerton. 1802.

As we admit the account of this work, given by its author, to be just and correct, we shall submit it to our readers. He observes;

'It often happens that men who are bred to the naval and military profession, when unemployed in the service of their country, find themselves at a loss for some occupation to fill up the great vacuum resulting from the want of those professional and active pursuits to which they have been so much accustomed. There are no doubt many who from age, infirmities, and length of service, wish to retire in ease and comfort, and whose situation requires that certain degree of relaxation, which the fatigues of service and change of climate may have rendered so necessary. Still, among the number, there are several to whom we are much beholden, for having employed not only their professional, but literary, abilities to the improvement and advantage of the respective services—a pleasure and satisfaction which every man must feel who is a sincere and zealous lover of his country.

'Impressed with these ideas, and urged on by such examples, I was induced to devote my leisure moments in compiling the following sheets; having frequently, in the course of service, experienced the great utility that might be found in a chronological abridgement of the naval history, with other maritime and nautical events, not only as a work which might afford some entertainment and instruction, but more particularly as a book of reference.'—

'As it will in a great measure shew the rise and progress of the British navy, I judged it necessary to commence its history at so early a period as that in which the Britons were constantly exposed to invasions from their neighbours.'

We are told that the dominion of the sea

'Was insisted on and confirmed by Edgar the Great, who compelled all the kings of Britain and the adjacent isles, to acknowledge his right and authority. The naval superiority and power which Great Britain has maintained ever since that period, notwithstanding the various obstinate disputes which have caused so much slaughter, have been supported by her in opposition to the united maritime powers of Europe.

'It is an object of amusement and utility for sea officers to be acquainted with the times of invention and introduction of the many mathematical and nautical instruments, charts, &c. by which we are enabled to traverse the immense ocean, in almost perfect security. The near approach to the discovery of the longitude in these modern days, by the ingenuity, industry, and astronomical abilities of Mr. Witchel's lunar observations, and Mr. Harrison's invention of the time-keeper, have proved truly beneficial to mariners.

'The numerous adventurers both of our own and other nations, to whose persevering and indefatigable labours, we are so much indebted for having explored the then unknown seas, and enlightened us by their various and useful discoveries, as well as those distinguished British circumnavigators, Drake, Anson, Byron, Wallis, Carteret, Furneaux, Vancouver, and the ever-memorable Cook are worthy of a distinguished place in the records of history.

'The events and occurrences are curtailed as much as circumstances would permit, in order that the work may not be extended more than was absolutely necessary; those during the famous Dutch wars, and in the two last, are deserving our particular observation, and are more detailed. The original plan was, to have comprised it in three volumes, and to end the 31st of December 1800, had not the prospect of peace, and the signing its preliminary articles, encouraged me to bring it up to that period. This, with the many heroic exploits which have been performed during the last war, are so deserving of record, that I should have considered myself very remiss in not giving them that place in history which they so justly merit, and which is due to the names and characters of those gallant men who have borne so active and conspicuous a part in adding immortal honours to the British navy.

'By extending the work to two more volumes, I have also been able to introduce many useful state papers, together with the opinion and judgment of Sir William Scott in many interesting prize causes in the Court of Admiralty, particularly that on the right of search of neutrals by the belligerent powers.

'The Appendix is given in two separate volumes, in order the more readily to refer to any particular occurrence. It contains the state of the royal navy of Great Britain, its various successes and losses, with a comparative view of those of other powers; a list of fleets, squadrons, lines of battle; an account of the different offices in the naval department, with the names of those noblemen and gentlemen who have served in each; a list of the admirals and post-captains who have borne commissions in the royal navy, with an account of any important service they have performed, besides other useful information.'

Captain S. adds,

'The candour of my readers will, I should hope, be blind to errors, which may too often occur, and expose my humble production to censure and criticism; but when they consider that it is from the pen of one, whose profession requires so early an introduction, that it interferes with those pursuits of classical learning, which are necessary qualifications to enable him to appear before the public as an author, and who has undertaken this work to fill up those leisure hours which were unemployed by his country; I am persuaded they will have good humour enough to pass over faults which might be deemed inexcusable in any other situation.

'Should it, in general, meet the approbation of not only the officers in the royal navy, but all those who are conversant in nautical affairs, as well as others of my readers, I shall think myself amply rewarded, in having bestowed my time and labour so beneficially.'

We

We applaud the fairness, the industry, and the patriotic intentions of Captain Schomberg; and, the expediency of a work like the present being unquestionable, his design claims great merit. The feats of heroism and the professional sacrifices here narrated merit the most precious embalment which literary diligence, critical research, and finished composition, are capable of effecting; and this they deserve not only by their splendour, but by their connection with the power, the prosperity, and the consideration of the British empire. It was, therefore, to be wished that the edifice of the naval chronology should be founded on a search made by a professional and discriminating eye, accustomed to separate fact from fable, and to rectify the inaccurate statements of mere lettered historians, into all the documents which books, public offices, and private repositories could furnish; and that the matter, thus pure, should be thrown into a luminous arrangement, and be set forth in a style that was chaste, elevated, and worthy of such glorious and momentous subjects.

If the work before us be not that monument erected to transmit and to perpetuate our naval pre-eminence, which meets the wish of enlightened patriotism, and the ideas of severe critics, it is not without claims to praise. If the style be somewhat inaccurate, it is free from affectation; if the matter be not in every case sufficiently sifted, it is for the most part authentic, and generally well selected; and if, altogether, the execution of the volumes correspond not with the illustrious deeds which they record, they will be found instructive, entertaining, and useful; creditable to the author, and worthy of the ingenious and liberal spirit of the honourable profession to which he belongs.

To exemplify Captain Schomberg's mode of detailing the *early* part of our naval history, we select his account of it during the interesting period of the reign of Henry VII.

'HENRY VII.

'1489. Bartholomew Columbus first brought into England maps and sea charts, and presented the king with a map of the world.

'1492. Christopher Columbus discovered the American islands. It is generally believed that Cat island, one of the Bahamas, was the first seen and landed upon.

'1497. John Cabot *, a Venetian, who resided at Bristol, encouraged by the success of Columbus, made proposals to the king, to undertake a voyage on discoveries, which was granted by letters patent, provided that the ships fitted out should be obliged to return to the port of Bristol. Cabot sailed in the spring; his object seems

'* Some historians say that Henry VII. granted permission to Cabot and his sons, to make discoveries, on the 5th of March, 1496.'

to

to have been, that of discovering a north-west passage to the East Indies.

'On the 24th of June he discovered land, and gave it the name of Prima Vista, or first seen; it has been since called Newfoundland. Having sailed down to Cape Florida, he returned to England, bringing with him three of the natives of Labrador. Cabot from this may justly claim the merit of being the first discoverer of the continent of America.

'Emanuel king of Portugal, sent out Vasco di Gama with four ships, to attempt a passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, which after many difficulties he accomplished, and sailing along the eastern coast of Africa, which had been till then unknown to Europeans, he arrived after a tedious voyage of thirteen months in the Bay of Bengal.

'1499. Americus Vespusius, a Florentine, sailed from port Saint Mary's in the province of Andalusia, and made some little discoveries on the coast of Paria in south America. Spain deeming this the first discovery of that continent gave the whole of it the name of America.

'At the close of this century, John II. king of Portugal, declared Lisbon a free port, and adopted a new method of applying astronomy to navigation; he also gave its present name to the Cape of Good Hope, which heretofore had been called the Cape of Storms, foreseeing that it would open a passage to India.

'1500. The coast of Brazil was first discovered by Cabral a Portuguese, who being sent out to the East Indies, by Emanuel king of Portugal, was driven by a storm upon this part of the coast of America.

'1501. On the return of the Portuguese from India, they discovered the islands of Ascension and Saint Helena.

'1502. Vasco di Gama was the first who attempted to cross over directly from the coast of Mozambique to India.

'1504. The first instance of French ships sailing for, and arriving on the coast of North America.

'1508. Negroes were first carried from the coast of Guinea, by the Portuguese, to the Spanish island of Hispaniola.

'Aubart, a Frenchman, was the first who sailed up the river Saint Lawrence to Canada.

'1509. Admiral James Columbus, son of the great Christopher, now settled and planted the island of Jamaica.

'Ships were built in this reign for the royal navy; the Great Harry was the first, and cost upwards of fourteen thousand pounds. She was by some accident burnt at Woolwich, on the 29th of August, 1553.'

As the Dutch have been the people who have most successfully contested for the palm of naval pre-eminence with this country, we copy parts of the author's concise but satisfactory account of the several engagements of the short war which was terminated by the peace of Breda; and we think that they will give the reader an advantageous idea of the present work:

'1665.

'1665. Hostilities having commenced between England and Holland, war was formally declared by the two powers.

'The Duke of York cruized with a powerful fleet on the coast of Holland, until a violent storm compelled him to quit his station, and return to England. The Dutch Admiral Opdam availed himself of this advantage to put to sea, and captured the trade from Hamburgh, with its convoy.

'The duke enraged at the success of the Dutch, on the 1st of June sailed from Solebay, in quest of the enemy; his fleet consisted of one hundred and fourteen sail of men of war, and twenty-eight fire ships, manned with twenty-two thousand seamen and soldiers. This formidable fleet was divided into three squadrons; the first or red, commanded by the Duke of York, with the Admirals Penn and Lawson; the second or white, by Prince Rupert, Minns, and Samson; the third or blue, by the Earl of Sandwich, Cuttins, and Sir George Ayscue *.

'On the same day the enemy were discovered off Harwich, formed into seven squadrons, viz.

	Men of War.	Fire-ships.	
1st. Opdam's	14	2	
2d. Evertz	14	1	
3d. Cortenair	14	1	
4th. Stillingaurt	14	1	
5th. Van Tromp	16	2	
6th. Cor. Evertz	14	1	
7th. Scheam	16	2	
Total	102	10	with seven yachts.

'The wind being favourable for the Dutch, they retired before the English to the mouth of the Maeze, from whence Opdam assigned his reasons to the States for not fighting the English, with which they were by no means satisfied, and dispatched orders for him to put to sea immediately, and fight at all events. Opdam, at a council of war which he had assembled, finding that the unanimous opinion agreed with his own, said, "I am entirely of your opinion, but here are my orders, to-morrow my head shall be bound with laurel, or with cypress;" and instantly gave directions to approach the English fleet. This memorable battle began at three in the morning, on the 3d of June, off Lowestoffe, and continued with unabating fury until noon, without an advantage on either side, when the Earl of Sandwich †, with the blue squadron, forced through the centre of the Dutch fleet, and threw them into such disorder and confusion as brought on a general flight. The Duke of York, in the Royal Charles of eighty guns ‡, and Admiral Opdam,

'* The same officer who had retired on a pension in the civil war, and was again called forth to serve.'

'† Son to the famous Admiral.'

'‡ She was allowed as a flag ship to have three lieutenants, four masters mates, each to have the pay of a master of a third rate, and thirty midshipmen.'

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in a ship of the same force, were closely engaged for some hours. The Earl of Falmouth, Lord Muskerry, and Mr. Boyle, second son of the Earl of Burlington, were killed standing by the duke, who received a wound in the head by a splinter from Mr. Boyle's head. In the midst of this desperate battle the Dutch admiral blew up; only five of the crew escaped out of five hundred. Soon after this fatal accident four of their best ships, from sixty to forty guns, ran foul of each other and were destroyed by a fireship; three still larger shared the same fate. The Orange, a ship of 74 guns, was also burnt, and her crew perished. At four in the afternoon the Admirals Stillingaurt and Cortinair were killed, and their ships bore out of the line without striking their flags, which drew many after them, and at length threw the whole into confusion. Van Tromp still continued to fight bravely, with not more than thirty ships until eight at night, when he was obliged to give way and leave the English masters of the sea. This was the most signal victory ever gained by the English, and the severest defeat the Dutch ever experienced. They had eighteen ships taken and fourteen sunk, besides such as were burnt. Four thousand men were killed, and two thousand made prisoners, sixteen of whom were captains. On the side of the English the Charity, of 40 guns, was the only ship lost. The killed amounted to two hundred and fifty, among whom were the Vice-Admirals Sampson and Sir John Lawson, the captains the Earl of Marlborough and Portland. The wounded did not exceed three hundred and fifty.

'It was the opinion, that had the English pursued the enemy with vigour, the whole Dutch navy would have been taken or destroyed. On the fleet's return into port, medals were struck in honour of the Duke of York and the victory.'—

'1666. This year the command of the fleet was given to Prince Rupert and the Duke of Albemarle; the former had orders to sail in quest of a French fleet, which consisted of thirty-six ships, under the command of the Duke of Beaufort, and were designed to enter the channel, for the purpose of joining the Dutch fleet, commanded by De Ruyter, who was off Dunkirk with seventy-one sail of the line, twelve frigates, thirteen fireships, and eight yachts.

'On the 1st of June the Duke of Albemarle, who had put to sea with sixty sail, fell in with De Ruyter, and instantly bore down upon him with the utmost bravery. The action soon began, and continued with great violence until night parted the combatants. The ships, in which were De Ruyter and Van Tromp, were so much shattered that they were obliged to shift their flags and had nearly been taken. One ship was blown up, and Admiral Evertzen killed. On the side of the English, Sir William Berkeley, who gallantly led the van in the Swiftsure, a second rate, being attacked on all sides by the enemy, was killed, and his ship compelled to strike. The Essex, a third rate, was also taken. The intrepid conduct of Sir John Harman, who commanded the Henry, deserves to be recorded. The ship being surrounded and assailed from all quarters by the Zealand squadron, Admiral Evertzen, who commanded it, hailed and offered him quarter; to which this brave fellow replied, "No, Sir, it is not

come

come to that yet." The next broadside killed the Dutch Admiral, by which means their squadron was thrown into confusion and obliged to quit the Henry. Three fireships were now sent to burn her, one of them grappled her starboard quarter, but the smoke was too thick to discern where the grappling irons had hooked, until the blaze burst out, when the boatswain resolutely jumped on board, disentangled the irons, and instantly recovered his own ship. Scarcely was this effected before another fireship boarded her on the larboard side; the sails and rigging taking fire, destruction seemed inevitable, and several of the crew threw themselves into the sea; upon which Sir John Harman drew his sword and threatened to kill any who should attempt to quit the ship. The exertions, at length, of the remaining crew extinguished the flames. Sir John Harman, although his leg was broken, continued on deck giving directions, and sunk another fireship which was bearing down upon him. In this crippled state he got into Harwich, and repaired the damages his ship had sustained in sufficient time to be at sea and share in the following actions.

'On the 2d, in the morning *, the battle was renewed with encreased fury. Van Tromp rashly pushing in amidst the English ships had a narrow escape. De Ruyter, who came down to his assistance, was in equal danger; these Admirals being reinforced by sixteen Dutch ships gave an instant turn to the battle; and the Duke of Albemarle became so hard pressed, that he found it necessary to retreat towards the English coast. The Dutch continued to pursue him until night, when a calm put an end to the conflict. In the morning the Duke of Albemarle finding that he had only with him twenty-eight ships fit for service, and the Dutch still in pursuit with a much superior force, ordered three of the ships most disabled to be burnt, and directed those which had not suffered so much to go ahead to look out, preserving the line himself with the rest to receive the pursuers.

'In the afternoon, when the Dutch fleet was almost within gunshot, a fleet was discovered to the southward; which the duke soon perceived to be the squadron under Prince Rupert crouding sail to join him.

'The English admiral instantly hauled to the wind, the more readily to effect the junction. Sir George Ayscue, in the Royal

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' * Previous to the action, a council of war was held, wherein the Duke of Albemarle gave this opinion: "That if we had dreaded the numbers of our enemies, we should have fled yesterday; but though we are inferior to them in ships, we are in all things else superior. Force gives them courage. Let us, if we need it, borrow resolution from the thoughts of what we have formerly performed. Let the enemy feel, that though our fleet be divided, our spirit is entire. At the worst it will be more honourable to die bravely here on our own element, than to be made spectacles to the Dutch. To be overcome is the fortune of war, but to fly is the fashion of cowards. Let us teach the world, that Englishmen would rather be acquainted with death than with fear."

Prince,

Prince, of one hundred guns, standing too near the shoals, ran upon the Galloper, where she was surrounded by the Dutch fleet and taken *.

'On the 4th, about eight in the morning, the English squadron having joined, pursued and came up with the Dutch fleet. The attack was now made and supported with greater violence and resolution than before. The action continued until seven in the evening, when a thick fog put an end to this dreadful and bloody contest, each retiring to its own coast claiming the honour of the victory.

'The loss sustained by the English in this long and well-fought battle is computed at sixteen men of war, ten of which were sunk, and six taken. Between five and six thousand men were killed and wounded. The English writers mention the Dutch to have lost fifteen men of war, twenty-one captains, and five thousand men; their own authors confess nine ships to have been lost, and a prodigious slaughter.

'The pensioner, De Witte, said after this battle, "If the English are beaten, their defeat did them more honour than all their former victories; their own fleet could never have been brought on after the first days fight, and he believed none but theirs could; and all the Dutch had discovered was, that Englishmen might be killed and English ships burnt, but that English courage was invincible."

The author gives the following account of the unfortunate expedition to Quiberon:

'1795. Sir John Borlase Warren received orders to hoist his broad pendant as Commodore, and appointed to command an expedition destined against the coast of France. About the middle of June he sailed from Yarmouth Roads, Isle of Wight, with a squadron of ships of war and fifty transports, having on board a body of 3000 emigrants, under the command of the Comtes D'Hervilly and De Puysaye. On the 21st the Galatea, which had been sent into Quiberon Bay, was chased by the French fleet, which was soon afterwards seen by the squadron. Commodore Warren immediately made the best disposition for the protection of the convoy, and hastened to join Lord Bridport, whom he had the good fortune to discern the next morning in pursuit of the enemy; the Robust, Thunderer, and Standard were ordered to join the fleet, but got up with it too late to have any share in the action. After being at sea sixteen days, Sir John Warren anchored with the fleet between Isle Dieu and that of Noirmoutier; but as this was not considered by the French officers a proper situation to disembark, they proceeded for

'* The capture of an English admiral caused great exultation among the Dutch; this has been assigned by some sea officers as a reason why the English do not wear the red flag at the main; but Sir George Ayscue was Admiral of the white. The distinguishing flag of the red squadron has ever been the union or flag of the lord high admiral. Sir George Ayscue on his return to England was set aside.'

Quiberon

Quiberon Bay, where they anchored on the 25th. On the 27th most of the emigrant troops were landed near the village of Carnac. At first about 200 Republicans shewed a disposition to oppose the disembarkation, but these were put to flight with some loss. The whole coast was soon alarmed; and the Republicans collecting in great force, (after several successful attacks,) compelled the Royalists to retreat into Fort Penthievre, and the Peninsula of Quiberon, which had surrendered to M. D'Hervilly on the 3d of July. The whole force which occupied the peninsula amounted to about 12,000 men.

'On the night of the 16th, M. D'Hervilly, at the head of about 5000 Royalists, made an attempt to carry by storm the Republicans' works and entrenched camp on the heights of St. Barbe, in which he was repulsed with considerable loss, and himself severely wounded.

'Desertion from the emigrant army became at this time seriously alarming; indeed little else could have been expected, when it is considered that numbers of the men were enlisted from the French prisons. By these deserters General Hoche was informed with the exact state of the fort and royal army. On the night of the 20th, which was extremely dark and tempestuous, many of the emigrant soldiers who were on guard deserted; and being acquainted with the parole and countersign, conducted a large body of the Republican troops unmolested into the fort. The instant the alarm was given, the garrison was thrown into the greatest scene of confusion; several of the emigrant soldiers grounded their arms, and shouted *Vive la Republique*; others abandoned or massacred their officers; the few who remained faithful fought with great desperation, and did not surrender till after a bloody and dreadful conflict.

'The Emigrants, Chouans, and English in the fort were about 10,000; most of whom were either killed or taken prisoners; among the number were the young Comte de Sombreuil, the Bishop of Dol, and several other emigrants of distinction, who were, contrary to the terms of capitulation agreed on by General Le Moine, conducted by his orders to Nantz, where they were tried by a military tribunal, and sentenced to suffer death.'

Then follows the letter of the gallant but ill fated Comte de Sombreuil to Sir J. Warren, which many of our readers will doubtless remember; after which Captain S. proceeds:

'The morning after this dreadful affair, the boats of the squadron with great difficulty brought off about 2000 or 3000 troops and Royalists, inhabitants, under cover of the frigates.

'Whilst Sir John Warren was carrying on his operations against the enemy in Quiberon, he detached Captain Joseph Ellison, in the Standard, to the great road of Belleisle, to summon the governor to surrender up the island.'—

'Sir John Warren next proceeded to the islands of Hedic and Houat, of which he took possession without opposition. Having refreshed the troops, and left a sufficient number for their defence, with some ships of war to cover the retreat of the troops if necessary, he sailed to the attack of the island of Noirmoutier; but he here also found

found the Republicans so well prepared, that he was obliged to retire, after destroying two or three armed vessels, and then took possession of Isle Dieu, about five leagues to the southward of Noirmoutier.

'Soon after the Commodore's arrival at this place, he was joined by the Jason frigate, Captain Stirling, having on board the Comte D'Artois, Duc de Bourbon, and some other French noblemen. A fleet of transports also joined the squadron, with 4000 British troops on board, under the command of Major General Doyle, who were landed on the island with a great quantity of military stores, cloathing, &c. They remained here till the close of the year, when finding it utterly impracticable to attempt any further descent on the coast of France, they were re-embarked on board the transports and returned to England.

'Thus ended this unfortunate expedition, by which the nation is supposed to have lost near 40,000 stand of arms, with clothing for as many men; besides an immense quantity of stores, ammunition, &c. Six transports that arrived in the evening previous to the storming of Fort Penthievre, laden with provisions of every sort for the army, fell into the hands of the enemy.'

In the more recent part of the history, we find only those details which the dispatches of the times contained: but the author has the merit of fully and faithfully setting forth their contents.

Vols. IV. and V. are wholly occupied, as *Appendices*, with lists of squadrons and their commanders, accounts of ships lost, taken, &c. &c. These documents are useful though not *readable* parts of the work; and we doubt not that they are authentic in all important points, though we have observed a number of minute errors.

ART. III. *The Naval History of the late War*; compiled from authentic Documents. By William Stewart Rose. Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 320. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

THE *cui bono* of this work is not very evident to our apprehension: since the events which it records are in the recollection of every one, and it cannot boast of imparting any information beyond that which the journals of the period communicated. In his introduction, Mr. Rose says; 'if, in the work I have undertaken, I shall succeed in freeing the accounts of our naval operations from the inventions of the Jacobins, or the errors and exaggerations of the credulous, I shall conceive my efforts successfully directed, and my object attained.'—Respecting the transcendency of our naval exploits, and the superior merit of our brave defenders, there has been but one opinion, and to have doubted here would have been to fly in

the face of reason, and abjure the testimony of sense; so far, then, the labours of the author are superfluous. If we are to consider him as stigmatizing with the title of Jacobins all those who view with no fondness the affairs of Toulon, Corsica, and Quiberon, the bullying conduct in the neutral ports of the Mediterranean, and the French colonial captures, we suspect that he will give an alarming bulk and respectability to the sect; and if we admire his boldness in undertaking to settle points of such difficulty, we have to lament that success has so little sanctioned his attempts.

We subscribe, however, *ex animo*, to the following candid and sensible observations on the inefficient naval campaign of 1783, and the unjust censures on Admiral Earl Howe:

'Thus passed the Channel campaign of 1793. The people, who too often confound want of success with want of merit, were loud in their censures of the Admiral. The public prints and pamphlets of the day were filled with declamations on his inactivity, his name was seldom mentioned but with reproach, and the road of Torbay, to which he had so frequently returned baffled in his endeavour to meet the enemy, became the watch-word of calumny. If, in judging of land operations, it is right to make allowances for various accidents, which may frustrate the best planned enterprizes, much more ought we to do so with respect to naval expeditions, where difficulty of procuring intelligence, changes of wind, storms, calms and mists, render all attempts on an enemy extremely uncertain, often impede pursuit, or rob even victory of it's rewards. The opposition of the elements was in this instance the sole cause of the Admiral's failure, in attempting to bring the enemy to action; and the experience of his former life ought to have secured him from the suspicion of declining the contest. His courage was proverbial, and his talents as a commander had been proved in various situations; but in none more incontestibly than the relief of Gibraltar during the last war, when with a very inferior force he safely conducted an enormous fleet of transports through a narrow strait defended by a powerful French and Spanish fleet. The events of the ensuing year proved the injustice of the obloquy, under which he laboured, and ought to be a warning, not to decide rashly on subjects, on which but partial information can be obtained, nor, because, we are removed from the sphere of them ourselves, to undervalue obstacles, which perhaps no human skill, or courage can overcome.'

Treating of the Toulon business, the author says;

'Some, who conceive the war began on the strictest grounds of self defence, have considered Lord Hood's availing himself of the disaffection of the constitutional party in France, as an unjustifiable interference with the internal government of that country, and a departure from the principles, on which our ministry professed to carry on the war: yet in this instance they differ from the opinions of a writer [Vattel] on the laws of nations, who has shewn himself

most jealous of any attempt on the liberties of an independent people.'

Permitting this objection to give way to the authority of Vattel, there is another founded on a fact which it is not so easy to remove, which Mr. Rose has not stated, and in course has not combated. He does not wholly conceal, though he is averse from explicitly stating, that it was the constitutionalist faction which gave Lord Hood admission into Toulon; and that it was stipulated that Toulon was to be governed conformably to that régime. A very public measure, in direct violation of this agreement, was taken by the British Admiral, which is passed over in the present author's page; we refer to the re-instatement of the Archbishop of Toulon in his see, with all the rights and privileges which he enjoyed under the antient system. We know not whether this step contributed, or not, to the disastrous consequences which soon afterward followed: but it was an act by which the treaty was violated, and it ought to have undergone public investigation. We do not make the gallant and noble Commander responsible for this conduct: which much less resembles his character, than it savours of the eagerness and inconsiderateness then displayed in our foreign department.

On another point, it is remarked:

'It has already been cursorily stated, that the great deficiency of grain in France during this year, and the difficulty, she found in obtaining a foreign supply, from having dissolved her relations of amity and commerce with the greatest part of Europe, led our government to hope, that she might be starved into terms of peace, by cutting off all supplies of food. The advantages resulting from this measure were not equal to the expectations, which had been formed. Some of the northern powers were dissatisfied with the proceeding; and it has been considered by some persons as an undue and unusual exercise of hostility.'

Mr. Rose then proceeds to argue on the admissibility of this system, and again quotes Vattel in his support: but his reasonings on this subject are not less wide of the true point, than the trade winds are distant from the north pole. Whether provisions are or are not contraband, in certain circumstances, is not the question; the matter to be ascertained is whether a Being, endowed with the least particle of rationality, could ever entertain the hope that the detention of a few thousand quarters of corn would reduce a proud high-spirited population, of upwards of twenty millions, to a capitulation? Had the pure production of misery been the sole object contemplated, the measure was a fit one for such a purpose: but, without presuming to set up an opinion in opposition to the grave authority

of

of civilians in and out of judicial situations, of commissioners presiding in courts of public law, of statesmen connected with the foreign department, of renowned publicists, and of lecturers on the laws of nations, we shall only observe that, had the decision been different, and had the breath of a great law sage (now no more) clogged the wheels and arrested the operations of the mint of forged assignats, instead of giving vigour to its movements and vivacity to its impressions, we should have thought that sound policy and the honour of Britain had been at least as much consulted. That we view with no predilection all chimerical innovations in the collections of rules and maxims which pass under the name of the Law of Nations, our sentiments on the questions in discussion between us and the northern nations have sufficiently proved. It is also to be remarked that a great and respectable nation, ambitious of setting an example of all that is magnanimous and liberal, should not be eager to push the rights of war to their utmost limit; and a more judicious guardian of its interests, than it had then the fortune of obeying, may hereafter be of this opinion.

On the French colonial captures, we must observe that they cost us immense sums and innumerable lives, and gave great jealousy to our allies. Good judges have thought that, had we reserved those efforts for a co-operation with the other confederates, in attempting to keep within bounds the torrent which inundated Europe, we should have better consulted our reputation, and not less our interests in a large view of them. We except the Dutch colonies; of which, perhaps, it was proper to lay hold: but, acting up to the conservative spirit, which was professed to be the principle of the late warfare, even these should have been taken into our possession and holden as pledges faithfully to be restored, if ever Holland recovered her independence. Candour, however, requires that it should be admitted that the period, of which we speak, was a very extraordinary one; and that the men who acted in it should be judged with some allowance. No persons are more desirous than we are, that the measures which have been so warmly debated may rest in undisturbed oblivion; and that our country, resuming her wonted temper and spirit, may be distinguished by such characteristics to the most distant times.

Mr. Rose has the art of stating events, which are not to his taste, in a manner unusually concise. The expedition to Quiberon, fitted out at an immense expence, from which so much was expected, which ended so tragically, which gave to republican ferocity victims so illustrious and venerable, and

which was so much the object of public discussion, occupies exactly one half of one of his light pages. This mode may please his friends, but what becomes of the good faith of the historian? Nay, where is the boasted spirit of chivalry, when silence thus conveys the greatest insult on the memory of such noble sufferers?

If Mr. R. should despise *our* remonstrances, we shall consign him to a literary censor of antiquity, who was also a fine Gentleman; and who, calling history *testis temporum, vita memoriæ, nuntia vetustatis*, asks, *Nam quis nescit, primam esse historiæ legem, ne quid falsi dicere audeat? deinde, ne quid veri non audeat?* He farther observes; *in rebus magnis, memoriâque dignis*, consilia *primum, deinde* acta, *postea* eventus *expectantur;* and he afterward adds, *cum de eventu dicatur, ut causæ explicentur omnes vel casus, vel* sapientiæ, *vel* temeritatis: *hominumque ipsorum non solum res gestæ, sed etiam qui famâ ac nomine excellant, de cujusque vitâ, atque naturâ* —Did the heroic devotion of the high-spirited and brave Sombreuil, did the martyrdom of the Bishop of Dol, demand no tribute from the historian of the enterprizes of the time *?

Speaking of Ceylon, Mr. R. says:

'This island teems with most of the productions of the east, though little exertions have been made by the Dutch to bring them to perfection. The whole of the sea coast, which was in their possession, has since fallen into our hands; a great extent of country however is in the possession of a barbarous Prince, who still enjoys considerable wealth and resources. His power indeed bears no proportion to his pride; but the Dutch conceived their submission to his insolence well repaid by the essential advantages, they derived from him and his subjects.

'He is familiarly called the King of Candia; but he stiles himself The Descendant of the Sun, the Offspring of the Lion, and the Ruler of the slaves, whom others term the Sovereigns of the world; and when petitioning his European neighbours for the restoration of provinces, of which they had despoiled him, addressed his remonstrances to his 'Slaves the Dutch.'

'During the time, these settlements were in the hands of Holland, they produced little revenue: which is entirely to be attributed to the indolence of the cultivators, and their pernicious system of monopoly. The Portuguese, while they retained these parts of the island, did nothing towards improving their productions; and during the immense length of time, they were in the possession of Holland, almost every branch of agriculture, except the collection of cinnamon, was neglected, and this was only cultivated during the last fifteen years. Their colony depended entirely on supplies of foreign grain for its subsistence; and though rice is cultivated with

* We refer our readers to Captain Schomberg's detail of this disastrous expedition, quoted in our preceding pages. (pp. 350-352.)

success

success in some, and might be in most districts of the island, no encouragement was given to its growth, because the exclusive privilege of supplying the settlements was monopolized by the governor and counsellors of Batavia.

'The military advantages derived from the possession of this colony render it a most desirable possession to Great Britain. There is no port on the Coromandel coast, in which ships can remain with safety during the storms, which render the shores of India nearly inaccessible from the month of October to January. The possession of the harbour of Trincomalé is therefore of the most essential consequence to any power, whose interests require the command of the Indian seas; and the last war forcibly proved the evils to be expected from its remaining open to our enemies. The island is in fact a post commanding some of our most valuable and least protected provinces in Asia. The enormous surf, which breaks on the coast of Coromandel, defends every part of the shore, except that opposite to Ceylon; but here this tremendous barrier does not exist, and the possessors of the island might safely throw a numerous army into the heart of the provinces of Tinnavelly, Ramnad, Madura, and Tanjore, or at least force the English to keep up an army on the opposite coasts at a ruinous expence. On the other hand, the defence of the island itself cannot be attended with much difficulty; since troops can at any time be safely transported from the Coromandel coast: as boats can always pass to leeward of the reef of rocks, which connects the island with the continent, which ever way the monsoon sets.

'Had Ceylon remained a Dutch colony, it is impossible not to believe, that the French would have converted it into a depôt for the attack of the Carnatic; nothing indeed can afford a stronger temptation to an enemy, who is in the possession of Trincomalé, than the state of our southern possessions in India, even now that our most formidable enemy Tippoo Saib no longer exists. These districts are filled with a turbulent race of chiefs, who continually resist the demands of the English government in India, and on every favourable occasion retain their own quota of revenue, and plunder the peaceably disposed countries in their vicinity. Under such circumstances, should an enemy have invaded the coast, and a naval armament prevented succours arriving from Bengal, the Carnatic must infallibly have fallen.'

Captain Percival's recent account of Ceylon will shortly call our attention more fully to this subject.

The following extract shews the temerity and the wealth of English merchants;

'In April 1796, a small naval force, under the command of Captain Parr, and a military detachment, commanded by Major-General Whyte, got possession, without resistance, of Demerara, Berbice, and Essequibo, Dutch colonies, situated in Guiana, to the westward of Surinam. A considerable quantity of produce fell into the hands of the captors. The fertility of these districts is too universally known to require description. They have, from the moment in

which they fell into our possession, been a favourite field for English speculation, and have realized the wildest dreams of avarice.

'But the degree in which the value of these colonies and Surinam, which afterwards fell into our possession, has been enhanced by British industry, will be best exemplified by the statement, which was delivered in to the English government by the merchants and cultivators, after the signature of the preliminary articles of peace. According to their estimate, the value of the estates purchased in these settlements, and held by British subjects, amounted to the enormous sum of seven million pounds, and the moveable property, such as slaves, European cargoes, plantation utensils, and North American supplies of flour, lumber, &c. to two millions more.'

It may be said that, to string together the ordinary accounts of transactions so intimately connected with the fate and glory of the country as are those contained in this work, is a patriotic service; and that every effort in this way should be received favourably, and countenanced. We are as much alive to sentiments of this sort as the framers of such an observation can be; and had the present narrative aimed only at this laudable end, we should have lent every support to its humble claims:—as far as it does attain that object, so far we consider it as valuable.

Mr. Rose pleads his inexperience in the business of the press, as an excuse for typographical inaccuracies: but the composition of his work is defective also in point of style. It is particularly marked by an ungrammatical omission of the relative *which*, in frequent instances, and the substitution of a disjunctive comma for this connecting particle;—for example: 'pursued the course, she was steering;' 'the calamities, we experienced;' &c.

ART. IV. *Sketches and Observations taken on a Tour through a Part of the South of Europe.* By Jens Wolff. 4to. pp. 260. 18s. Boards. Richardsons.

IN the spring of the year 1785, the author of these sketches, in company with Mr. Noring, Secretary to the Swedish Minister at the Court of London, took his departure from Falmouth, in the packet for Lisbon. From the capital of Portugal, the travellers prosecuted their excursion by Elvas, Badajoz, Merida, Madrid, Alcala, Saragossa, Barcelona, Perpignan, Montpellier, Nismes, Aix, Marseilles, Toulon, Nice, Genoa, Leghorn Florence, Sienna, Viterbo, Rome, Naples, Bologna, Modena, Parma, Turin, Chamberry, Lyons, and Paris.

A stale date and a beaten itinerary necessarily deprive Mr. W.'s pages of that popular interest which attaches to the recital of recent events, and to the delineation of countries which

which have attracted, for the first time, the steps of the curious. A diligent and sagacious observer, however, may often have it in his power to correct, enlarge, or modify the statements of others; to glean important yet neglected facts; to enliven by his manner, or enhance by his reasonings, those truths which dulness had obscured, or flippancy degraded; and, from the perplexity of partial and discordant materials, to unfold a copious and consistent narrative. Yet let us not be so unreasonable as to require of any tourist more than he promises. The present unassuming author observes:

'It is for those whose literary talents, and opportunity of visiting foreign countries, qualify them for the undertaking, to draw finished pictures of life and manners, as exhibited in the various nations through which they pass; and in preparing the narrative of their travels for the public eye, to set off weight of matter with purity and elegance of style. Happy they who, thus gifted to instruct and amuse, shall become intitled to rank in the same class with a Wraxall, a Coxe, or a Moore! To the qualifications of these accomplished tourists, the author of the following pages intending them as a mere *sketch* or *outline* of men and things, has not the vanity to aspire. Far from aiming at the higher ornaments of composition, he purposes only to relate the occurrences of an agreeable excursion in easy and familiar language; fortunate, indeed, if by an occasional stroke of pleasantry he may rather dispose his reader to accompany him through the work with the cheerfulness of a companion, than to fasten upon its defects with the severity of a critic.'

Mr. Wolff's humility, however, must not rob him of his due measure of praise.—His style is certainly that of a gentleman and a scholar. Rigid justice would, perhaps, require that we should notice this merit as constituting the *chief* excellence of his performance. We feel ourselves rather smoothly carried along by the polished tenor of the relation, than charmed by novelty or roused by emotion; and if, in some instances, our uniform course be interrupted, we are too conscious of being jostled out of our direct road, which we gladly resume, in spite of its placid monotony. Some of the intruding passages consist of long quotations, which mar the unity of design, without imparting rare or new information. We have not overlooked the writer's apology: but we deem it inadmissible. In a mere *sketch* or *outline*, sometimes faint enough, nay almost evanescent, why retail the fates of such personages as *Inez de Castro*, or *Massaniello?* Why fight over again, in English, the battle of *Thrasymenus?* Why stop at Arezzo, to commemorate the charms of Laura and of Vaucluse? Why drag us from Modena to Trieste, to witness the last moments of the unfortunate Winkelman? Or, why dwell

on an event of such notoriety as the resignation of Christina of Sweden?—Mr. W. has, indeed, contrived to introduce each episode by some connecting sentence: but he might, by virtue of the same expedient, have added to his journal every event that is splendid or interesting in history. Few devices are less costly than the insertion of an associating clause; and delicacy of transition seems reserved for the squeamish.—In the *good old times*, there lived in the north a worthy parson, whose pulpit *hobby* was the *broken covenant*. On the morning of a communion Sunday, he chose for his text,—"*and the cup was found in Benjamin's sack.*" A ray of hope beamed on the countenances of the simple and wearied audience, but it was quickly dispelled by the following short, *easy*, and *apposite* exordium:—"Dearly beloved brethren, this is a day set apart for searching your sacks: but in whose sack, think ye, will be found the cup of the *broken covenant?*—And this query *naturally* leads me to discourse of this *broken covenant.*"

If Mr. W., however, has dealt from his own stores with a sparing hand, it is seldom that we can detract from the justness of his observations or the fidelity of his reports. We say *seldom:* for we must acknowlege that a few of his assertions betray haste or credulity. Narbonne, for example, is said (p. 71.) to be *two miles* from the sea; whereas the distance is two French leagues, or nearly six English miles; and the precise measure is more deserving of attention, because there, as at Frejus, the sea has retired from a once flourishing port.—Again; 'there are still discernible many vestiges of Roman edifices.' We would not advise connoisseurs, on the strength of this intimation, to make a pilgrimage to Narbonne: since few towns of antient Gaul are so completely destitute of any striking memorial of former greatness. The rare and scattered fragments of the capital, circus, and amphitheatre, have long been appropriated to the construction of fortifications, which have been allowed to decay since France obtained possession of Roussillon.

The author thus gives his general remarks respecting Spain and its inhabitants:

'Before I enter upon a description of Madrid, I shall briefly pass my remarks on the Spanish character and customs in general. The women are remarkable for the delicacy of their form, and the peculiar softness and brilliancy of their eyes; it is not the influence of these charms, however, that renders them so irresistible to men, and makes the Spaniard proud to say, "In Spain, we do not kill ourselves but die for love." It is the intonation of their voice, which is so fascinating and dulcet, that I once heard it remarked, "there was more melody in the voice of a Spanish woman, than in the song of an Italian."

'From

'From the casual intercourse a traveller has with the natives of a country, it is, perhaps, unfair to form an opinion of the national character. That of the Spaniard has generally been esteemed vindictive and revengeful; were I, *préjugé a part*, to mention the traits that struck me most forcibly, as worthy to be called the *national character*, they would be honour and probity.

'Every publication at Madrid, that borders on irreligion, indecency, or that is licentiously gay, is forthwith burnt—this, doubtless, makes condemned books become more scarce, and consequently much sought after.

'Coffee-houses are numerous. The Spaniards are passionately fond of coffee and chocolate, which they prepare better than in any other country. The latter is indeed excellent, and known all over the world; the poorest peasant in Spain would be but ill-satisfied without his dish of rich chocolate. How much more wholesome than our English beverage of tea! Table d'Hôtes are not known—*Tant pis!* At a table d'Hôte, a stranger becomes acquainted with the national character and manners of the people, restraint ceases, and formality is banished. The French and Germans consider their table d'Hôtes as half the pleasure of their lives.

'The Spanish horses are much esteemed, and have these distinguishing qualities: colour, in general black or chesnut; an ardent or fiery eye; high courage tempered by gentleness. The Andalusian horses are preferred for the cavalry, state, or the manége. The town of Cordova produces many excellent horses, of these the King has a set. The barb race is peculiar to this province, and is preserved by a society of gentlemen, called Maestranza. The use of chimnies is almost unknown in Madrid—braziers are preferred, on which a kind of frankincense is occasionally strewed, which gives an excellent odour. Some time since, a very pretty actress complained to the Duke of Alba, that she was very poor, lived in a cold apartment, and was frozen to death. The Duke sent her a brazier full of piastres!—These traits of gallantry or humanity are not uncommon in Spain—how, in fact, could one refuse a brazier, or any thing else, to a pretty actress, who had no money, and was cold?—I had this anecdote from the Marquis de Langle.

'Friday is an ominous day in Spain; a vessel will hardly quit a port, or a captain put to sea on that day—all accidents happen on, or are attributed to a luckless Friday; and yet this day has been remarkably fortunate to others. Henry the Fourth, it is said, preferred Friday to any other day in the week. It was on that day he, for the first time, saw the beautiful Marchioness of Verneuil, of all his mistresses the one he preferred next to Gabrielle d'Estréés, whom he never could forget, of whom he talked an hundred times a day (as related by St. Evremond), whose portrait was always in his hand, and it is said, at his lips, when he fell under the poignard of the assassin Ravaillac.

'Compliments are more remarkable here, than elsewhere. A Spaniard always says to you, "*Dios guarde a Usted*," God protect you; or, "*Beso las manos*," I kiss your hands; or, *Viva Usted muchos annos*," "*Mil annos*," may you live a thousand years. It is related

related of a Spaniard, who inherited property bequeathed him by his uncle, that on his hearing the will read, he exclaimed, his eyes streaming with tears at each sentence, "*Mio Tio, viva Usted mil annos,*" my uncle, may you live a thousand years!—His dear uncle had been buried the preceding evening!

'Although I had various letters of introduction in this capital, some of which were of essential service to me, I cannot avoid mentioning the reception I met with at the house of a banker: on being shewn into an apartment, where I waited a few minutes before I could deliver my credentials, my attention was attracted by a sentence written in characters of gold on the wall, intimating "that nothing could be more ennuyant to men of business, than the visits of those who had little to do." This hint was too palpable to be mistaken, I threw my letter and card on the table, and retired, as Don Pedro was entering the room.

'There are, perhaps, few places where titles confer so little honor as in Spain; the frequency of them lessens their importance, and in addressing a stranger, you can seldom err by entitling him Marquis, Count, or Cavallero. The greatest distinction of ancient nobility lies in the number of christian-names prefixed to that of the family or surname: these are sometimes multiplied even by persons of inferior birth; I met with one of this description, whose name was simply Velasquez; his father having realized some money, as an honest silk-weaver, in Murcia, which, at his death, he bequeathed to Velasquez, the latter took the title of Don, and signed himself Antonio Fernando Philipe Henriquez Barameda Gomes de Velasquez, Cavallero of the Order d'Alcantara.

'If we observe the manner in which a Spaniard gives us his attention, which is commonly with his mouth open, we shall be disposed to admit the assertion of a Danish physician, who maintained, that people inclined to be deaf, receive sound from the vibration round the teeth; yet the size of their ears, which is uncommon, seems sufficient to answer the purpose for which nature intended them; I have seen those that would not go into my glove!'

We are not inclined to attach much importance to the question respecting the birth-place of Galileo: but, as the best authorities are in favour of Pisa, we were rather surprized to find a cautious writer ranking that celebrated philosopher, without hesitation, (p. 97.) among the natives of Florence.—In like manner, if the bite of the tarantula *must* be cured by music, we will not object to such a cheerful prescription: but we would rescue from the scandal of a suspicious age la Signora *Tofana's water*, which we verily believe was just as innocent as that of any other Signora. Yet it is here represented (p. 130.) as the most deliberately wicked fluid on the face of the earth;—as 'destroying the person to whom it is given at any stated period;' 'the effect may be either instantaneous or protracted for months, or even years, and the sufferer will linger till the period arrives at which it is intended the deadly potion

potion should undermine and destroy the constitution of its victim.'—But, mercy on us! the dreadful *Bohun-Upas* again rears its awful form.—Gentle reader, let us not linger within the atmosphere of this highly deleterious paragraph: but let us fly, ere *tremor* and *subsultus tendinum* convulse our frame, to gayer pictures and scenes of ordinary life! Gladly would we request Mr. W. to escort you through the streets of Naples and Marseilles: but, peradventure, you have long since been tired with the bustle of these fair cities. Well, then, listen to a few incidents or adventures—to any thing, in short, that may recover you from alarm:

'Wandering a few miles from Montpellier, upon a ramble of this description, and following the track of a road, winding along the feet of mountains through a pastoral valley, where shepherds were driving their flocks to feed upon the distant hills, I strayed farther on this romantic spot than I originally intended, and did not discover my situation 'till the setting sun announced the approach of evening. Ignorant of the distance from the town, I alighted, tied my horse to a tree, and sought some cottage or hamlet, where information could be gained. No track or road, however, appeared to guide me, 'till at a distance a bridge was visible, that seemed to unite two crags of rocks, between which a current glided with considerable rapidity, until it fell down a steep, which formed a cataract throwing up its white spray into the air, and from the still reflected beams of the sun, displayed a thousand variegated colours. On the side of this steep stood a small but neat cottage, overshadowed with pines; two children were playing on the ground near the door, and had not observed me 'till I stood close to them; on asking to whom the cottage belonged, they seemed astonished, stared, and then with precipitancy ran into the house, calling on "*Maman! Maman!*" Following them, I perceived an elegant female seated at a table, in the attitude of reading; apologizing for my abrupt entrance, I informed her of my situation, and trusted to her goodness to instruct me by what means I should be likely to regain the path I had quitted. With the utmost sweetness of countenance, and a politeness that evinced a knowledge of the world, she hesitated not to give me the necessary information; and on learning I was travelling through Montpellier, on my road to Italy, and had been tempted by the beauty of the surrounding country to lose myself in this sequestered spot, she requested me to take some refreshment, of which, from fatigue, I, in truth, stood much in need, and therefore very readily accepted. I was rising to depart, when her husband entered from his evening walk; his surprize and perplexity were not small, on seeing me—The lady, to whose hospitality I had been so much indebted, explained the circumstances of my visit, and confidence being somewhat inspired, I was tempted to prolong my stay by the courtsey of the little blooming Jeannette, who had quitted her mother's side, to prattle on my knee. I felt some curiosity to have explained the mystery of finding persons so superior in their manners, and

and elegant in their persons, occupying this retired spot, which apparently afforded scarcely the necessaries of life; this was not, however, a moment for enquiry,—but my impatience to learn some particulars of my host was gratified beyond my expectation, by his ingenuous declaration of some circumstances relative to his situation. I thereby understood that he was a Neapolitan nobleman, who, in consequence of having fatally wounded a brother officer in a duel, some months back, had been under the necessity of leaving Italy, and had in retirement sought that security, which in his own country was denied him. The evening being far advanced, I was anxious to depart, and intimating my desire, he very kindly accompanied me, till, by a nearer way, we reached that part of the road which had misled me, and here we parted. Whether it was the courtesy, intelligence, and candor of the husband, the unaffected loveliness of the wife, or the magic of this peculiarly romantic situation, that interested me, I know not; but certain it is, I felt, at parting, a regret, which, from the shortness of our acquaintance, I hardly dared to confess to myself.'

'Strolling into the coffee-room of *les quatre nations* at Marseilles one day at the hour of dinner, I could not avoid remarking the manners of different people, and the effect of various languages on the ear of a stranger. Several persons were assembled, either at dinner, reading the newspapers, taking ices, or ordering whatever suited their palate. A little full-dressed, hungry, meagre Frenchman, *bossu avec des jambes longues et un nez crochù*, with his napkin tucked under his chin, and devouring a sallad with impatient gestures, was, at every mouthful, vociferating, "*Garçon! Garçon!*"—The latter arriving out of breath, with big drops of symptomatic heat emitting from his brows: "*Quoi diable, garçon, est ce donc comme ça qu'on fait des attentions ici? Il y a plus d'un quart d'heure que j'ai appellé, et personne ne vient! appellez vous ça être bien servie? Qu'avez vous donc pour dîner? Donnez moi la carte sur le champ*"—"*Eh bien, Monsieur, la voila*"—"*Ah! voyons un peu!*"—Taking a magnifying eye-glass out of his pocket, which, by the reflection of the candles, seemed to set the bill of fare on fire.

'Bouille a la sauce.
De ros-bif a l'Angloie.
Cabillau à la sauce blanche.
Demi canard roti, ou aux navets.
Quarrè de mouton en chevreuil, ou à la reine.
Poitrine de mouton pannéé grilléé.
Fricandeau à l'ozeille, ou à la Dauphine.
Des Epinards au jus.
Omelette aux pommes.
Poudin au ris.
Oeufs au miroir.
Maccaroni, &c. &c.

'A blustering German Baron, six feet high, surrounded by dishes, none of which seemed to please or satisfy him, was muttering to himself, "*Was Teufel! donner wetter! hat er mir gegeben? dis kan ich bey*

bey meiner seele nicht essen—What the devil, thunder and lightning, has he given me? By my soul this is not eatable."—"*Carçon! fien ici tonc*"—"*Eh bien, me voila, Monsieur, que vous plait il?*"—"*Ke tiab'e kes que ça qu'on m'apport? Me prend on per eu pete savage ke je pis manger ceci ou cela in-çi, ke tous vos otres tiables te plats, he?*" "*Mais, Monsieur*, (said the waiter, with an humble and submissive tone of voice) *je vous assure que tout est bon dans notre maison, et*"—"*Et quoi tonc, Monsieur Hans Wurst! foila des raisonnements toujours, tes tomestiques quant on temande kek chose, c'est les Carçons de nous faires tes tisputes, tes kerelles!—donner blicksum allez foo au tiable, et dit à ton maitre qu'il fient ici.—Tiable! der verfluchter kerl meint dass man hier mit alles zufrieden seyn muss.*—The cursed rascal conceives that one must here be satisfied with every thing."—At this moment, an English naval officer entered the room, who, going to a table, was recognized by an old acquaintance, his countryman. "Ah, George, my worthy, who the D—l would have thought of seeing you in France? How are you?"—"Why, Bedford, G—d dam'me, where do you come from? (replied the other), I thought you were safely lodged in Old England among the loungers in Bond-street, by G—d!" —"No, I'm on my travels with my tutor." Are you? well I'm d—d glad to see you, by G—d! Let's sit down and crack a bottle of Burgundy together. Here, you waiter, garçon, scaramouch, what's your name, lay the cloth, and bring a bill of fare, d'ye hear? —*Monsieur*, (said the waiter, staring,) *me no understand Inglish.*— You dont, hey! Why then, G—d dam'me, tell your master to send us a fellow that does. (Another waiter arriving). Here you son of a land lubber, bring in something decent to eat. None of your black broths, cursed fricasée of frogs, or half-starved rabbits ragoned up into a kickshaw; some beef dam'me, plain roast is good enough for me, by G—d!"—*Oui, Monsieur, vous aurez le ros bif tout de suite.*" This interesting conversation, and volley of expletives, was checked by a large Newfoundland dog, who, in following the officer up the room, had stopped on the way, tempted by the sight and smell of a delicate *gigot de mouton*, which was visible from the corner of a table occupied by a spruce Abbé and Italian opera dancer, *bien poudré*, and dressed for the ballet of the evening, who were warmly disputing whether a *gigot de mouton fait à la merveille avec sauce piquante*, was, or was not preferable to *maccaroni à la parmesan*. In the heat of controversy, the *gigot* was nearly edged off the table by the arm of the impetuous Abbé; when impatient Cæsar thinking a donation was intended for him, snapped at the knuckle of the *gigot*, and with an irresistible pull brought down dish, mutton, haricot, cloth, and plates, on the extended leg of Signor Scamperino, and ran growling with the *gigot* in his mouth under his master's chair. Up started the Abbé in a rage, vociferating—*Oh! Morbleu! sacristie! quel voleur! Oh! mon gigot—Voila un infame chien—je voudrois qu'il t'etrangle, villain!*"—"*A il mio gamba*, (cried the Italian, rubbing his leg,) *e rotta, e non piu ballare—cospetto di Bacco! corpo di Christo! maledetto sia il dog Inglese che ho fatto! A me! son disfortunato e rovinato!*—Oh my leg! it's broken, and I shall no longer be able to dance—O Bacchus! body of Christ! curses alight on the English dog who did the act—

act—Oh Lord! I'm undone! I'm ruined! These exclamations, the clattering of the broken dishes, and the coolness of the dog gnawing the gigot under the table, attracting the attention of the company, created a general laugh at the distress of the Signor and his friend, the passionate Abbé, the latter crying out furiously "*pour son chapeau, ses gands, sa canne, le compte, tout etant en desordre ou perdu,*" in the confusion of a crouded room, where *la jolie Maitresse* at the bar was too deeply engaged in receiving the *milles attentions* of her admirers, and delivering out *bonbons* from a *boudoir orné*, to attend to any mishap at a distance; her surrounding galants pressing her to give them ices *à la crême, à la pistache, des marons glacés, des verres de limonade, d' orgeat, des bavoroises, une tasse de caffé, des liqueurs de cannelle, anis, girofle, noyau de la Martinique, de* Mde *Amphon, des isles*, and a thousand other et-cetera, with which her *jolie* cabinet was replenished. This agreeable confusion of tongues, and discordant sounds, continued till a boy entered the room, and distributed *les petites affiches*, announcing the play of the evening, (wherein *la charmante* Ponteuille was the chief performer,) a piece which had had a run of several nights, but of which *tout le monde* was still anxious to be spectators. This broke up the sittings, the *amateurs* quitted their seats with alacrity, the *dilittante* hopped off in graceful attitudes, and the *cognoscenti*, after taking their *pousse caffé* with a grave and dignified air, marched *au spectacle sans deliberation.*'

The conversation in the Paris Diligence is managed with due regard to French character and manner: but it is not of a cast sufficiently amiable or interesting to justify an extract. In its stead, we transcribe the concluding paragraph and sonnet:

'To those who have witnessed the gay and animating scenes of Paris, as it existed at the period when these sketches were drawn, I need not apologize for quitting my subject rather abruptly,—for "memory that would full fain the past recall," will also obtrude on the feeling mind recollections of subsequent events, at which Humanity shudders, and Nature stands aghast!—I shall, therefore, pass over in silence the former delights of this great metropolis, and with more pleasing sensations express the joy I experienced when I once more beheld the white cliffs of Dover rearing their proud heads above the ocean. The peculiarly pleasing feelings of the heart, natural to every man on reviewing his native country after a twelvemonth's absence, cannot be better described than in the following lines of a much esteemed friend, which occurred to me as I stood on the beach at Calais, awaiting the moment of departure for England:—

'SONNET

On a distant View of England.

'Thrice welcome to my longing eyes again,
Dear native land: tho' but in shadow trac'd,
As day first dawns upon the liquid waste;
And the chill mist hangs darkling o'er the main:

But

But lo the change! while yet I linger here,
The dewy Morn shakes off her mantle gray;
Touches with brighter tints of sunny ray
Thy cliffs, and streaks with gold the prospect clear.
Absence, that wakes each social sympathy;
Affections, that no distance could impair;
Soft age of youth, that past without a sigh,
And rising manhood, stranger still to care;
All these point homeward; and direct an eye
Of fondness, mingled with impatience, there.'

Having thus endeavoured to appreciate the merit of this performance, we are so far from wishing to 'fasten on its defects with the severity of critics,' that we would recommend it as an agreeable companion to all who relish continental tours, pleasing description and anecdotes, genteel writing, and typographic luxury.

ART. V. *Poems*, by John Penn, Esq. Consisting of original Works, Imitations, and Translations. 2 Vols. Royal 8vo. 1l. 5s. Boards. Hatchard.

THIS indefatigable votary of the Muses, whose productions we have had frequent opportunities of announcing *, is the grandson and representative of the elder branch of the founder of Pennsylvania, and resides at a beautiful seat, erected by himself, called Stoke Park, in Buckinghamshire. When the Reason of Nations shall have attained its full maturity, the act of William Penn in settling Pennsylvania will be considered as possessing a glory superior to all the blood-earned conquests of antient or modern times. His poetical descendant appears to be animated by the liberal and tolerating spirit which has distinguished the sect to which his illustrious ancestor belonged: but he avows himself a member of the church of England, and expresses great zeal for the preservation of establishments.

The present volumes consist partly of old pieces, which have undergone some alteration and revision, and partly of original poems. A long explanatory and critical preface, unfolding the sentiments and intentions of the author, exhibits him to us as a man of an elegant and cultivated mind, and justifies the opinion which we formerly gave of his abilities. As a sincere lover of letters and the arts, he seems to have taken great pains in ascertaining the principles of taste: but we cannot compliment him as having been uniformly successful in his conclusions and illustrations. His explanation of *Fitness*, in the preface,

* See Rev. vol. xxvi. N. S. p. 68., where other references are given.

p. xl. may possess the merit of novelty, but we cannot regard it as adapted to convey clear ideas:

'Fitness may not unaptly be compared to a pane of fine plate-glass, through which we sometimes see a beautiful prospect. It is not itself the object at which we look, but merely the medium through which we discover it. Where the plate-glass is opposite to an inner court, we no longer perceive any thing that charms us.'

We should rather have said, by *Fitness*, we generally understand; adaptation of parts, congruity, and harmonious disposition of objects, which may be contemplated through a pane of plate-glass, but which exists independently of the medium through which we may view it.

Another maxim, which this gentleman lays down, demands also some consideration. 'Such critics as aspire to acumen,' he says, 'will avoid the imputation of judging compositions by their *manner*, which only claim notice on account of their *matter*.' Critics who aspire to acumen will take both the *matter* and the *manner* of compositions into their consideration. Poems, in particular, require that the beauty of expression should be as much consulted as the justness of the sentiment; and Horace's advice, *dulcia sunto*, should be always present to the poet's mind. It is not sufficient that the *matter* be good, the *manner* must also be charming. Strokes of genius and profundity of thought may be displayed, without polish and elegance; and though the want of grace cannot deprive them of their value, their attractions must ever be diminished by this deficiency. In what work of taste is the *manner altogether* disregarded, and *notice only* claimed on account of the *matter*?

Mr. Penn enters a protest against being criticized and condemned merely on the secondary ground of *style*; and he declares that it is indifferent to him whether his publications are received with smiles or frowns, since favour cannot be more flattering to him than discouragement. It is, however, almost impossible for an author, who publishes with fine types, on fine paper, and with splendid embellishments, to possess absolute indifference respecting the opinion of the world:—but setting aside all personal considerations, our wish is to render the most ample justice on this as on every occasion.

From the new pieces, we shall first transcribe an entire poem:

'Ode *on the Death of* Thomas Fountayne, *Esq.* * 178c.

'Say, what new fierceness of intent,
Death, that relentless hand has arm'd?

'* Son of the present Dean of York, and the subject of one of Mason's epitaphs.'

Or dream'st thou, the dire weapon sent,
None, save its victim, shall be harm'd?

'Ah! see the saddest, where thou art,
Of Sorrow's weeping train advance,
With bows all strung; and many a dart
Swell the dread triumph of thy lance:

'Here on the parent doom'd to alight,
Or, trembling with a parent's fears,
Whom Nature's ties less close unite;
There fill a sister's eye with tears. *

'Listless around thy victims watch,
Pale friends, or bear, with Hurry's gait,
Laborious aid; though scarce to snatch
A moment from impending fate.

'Yet there, ah! dost thou not rejoice,
And feed insatiate on their sighs?
Say, dost thou, with exulting voice,
In fancy drag thy prostrate prize?

'The stroke, that will each lifeless joint
Relax, with Mockery's scowl prepare;
Or, smiling scan the weapon's point
Ere thou hast hurl'd it in the air?

'So towards him didst thou seem to bend
Thy course, so fierce with threatening mien,
Ere, early struck by thee, my friend
Low bowing to the earth was seen.

'Meek was the head, remorseless Power,
That sunk beneath thy whelming rage;
Nor eye did with defiance lour,
Nor tongue provoke thee to engage:

'Meek, as in bowers where Cam late saw
Joy inoffensive light his face,

' * Under the characters mentioned in this stanza, are attempted to be shadowed all his nearest, or dearest, relations; and among them, his eminently respectable uncle, the late Right Hon. Frederick Montagu; on whose regard for justice and the rights of individuals, duty and interest here equally conspire to dissuade from silence. One of the last, if not the last, public act of that upright and independent senator, who afterwards retired to a private station, was to propose in parliament the honourable annuity, by which Great Britain has, in her generosity, acknowledged the incalculable losses suffered by the late proprietaries of Pennsylvania; and, what they judge of more consequence, the competent character and merits likewise of their family, and particularly of their ancestor, who was its founder.'

While, passing, he still drudged to draw
His slimy train, with sluggish pace.

'Yet there bright Naiads we espied,
Who to the Nine their seats display'd:
Together, pleased, how oft we hied
To court the willow's slender shade.

'Mark Cam his leaden urn upheave,
Or hail, on vocal banks, each Muse,
When Morn paced forth, or silent Eve
Came sprinkling every flower with dews!

'Hope then was his, and Youth to him,
Gay-crown'd with roses, sweetly smiled;
Pleasure drew nigh, in festal trim,
Pleasure, that often has beguiled!

'Ev'n fickle Fortune, dubious dame,
Grasping the horn fair Plenty wore,
Cast round each treasure, as she came,
Bade him take freely of her store.

'He saw; he stoop'd; but Death was near,
And, poised, the unerring weapon shone—
Straight Youth and Pleasure disappear,
And Fortune's wrested gifts are gone;

'Ah! never to return; as they,
High on the fleet winds borne afar,
To various votaries, obey
The guidance of a happier star!'

In the *Elegy on the Departure of Miss P— and J— Ch— from Philadelphia*, one of the stanzas is *imperfect*. The sense, indeed, is clear, and so far the *matter* is right: but the *manner* of expressing it is objectionable, particularly in the omission of the word *them*, in the last line:

'Nor flock, nor lowing herd, enraptur'd feeds,
Nor Nature's voice, *and* Love's, salute the grove,
While Duty far the youthful sisters leads
To fields, *whence late the gathering tempests drove.*'

The Sonnet, on a very tame Pigeon, which had died from picking up some poisonous substance, contains no other reference to the fact of the bird being poisoned, than that it was 'check'd by sickness;' and it has a very lame conclusion.

From the Epigrams, we have formerly taken specimens.

Among the Miscellanies, is a Sequel to Gray's Long Story. It is a bold attempt to measure lances with Gray; and we cannot compliment Mr. Penn on the occasion. We thank him, however, for having erected an elegant monument to the memory

memory of this divine poet, near the spot on which his remains were interred.

Oda ad venerabilem Amicum, Cantabrigiæ habitantem, è Germaniâ missa, anno 1782, possesses classical elegance.

The Battle of Eddington, a tragedy, formerly published, concludes Vol. I.

The pieces in the second volume are;—*The Squire's Tale, modernized from Chaucer.—The Rights and Duties of the Rich, an Imitation of the 6th Satire of Persius.—The English Art of Poetry, an Imitation of Horace's Epistle to the Pisos.—Various Translations from Petrarch.*

On the subject of Imitations, Mr. P. makes the following judicious remarks in the Preface:

'The name of *Imitation* may have discredited it in the opinion of many, being by Horace, in one instance, connected with the idea of servility: but if we estimate the task that it imposes on the poet, who meets all its difficulties, by multiplying those parallelisms which form its essence to the degree which its nature requires, and to a greater than they have yet been multiplied; and by letting no proper name, nor interesting passage in the author imitated, be passed over, without providing others of equal consequence to match with them, we may be induced to allow, that it would require in him some compass of thought, at once to do this, and to do it to the satisfaction of his readers. Its resources and claims to respect will be more evident, when we consider how peculiar and distinct it is from every other literary labour, and what an inexhaustible source of variety the lapse of time provides, by the private and public events of all sorts which are continually occurring. The same satire that is imitated in one century, in ever so good a manner, may in the next be furnished with new characters and events, so as to form as good, or, possibly, better parallelisms.'

We shall take one passage from the imitation of Persius:

* 'Our bounds are clearly traced: our incomes shew
How far the wants of Moderation go.
[1] Empty your barns; next year they will be stored.
Perhaps, 'tis Duty warns, our aid implored.
[2] Some friend a gainful voyage hopes, till, mark!
Blown on [3] the rocks of Scilly, splits his bark:
His all is lost, and to the distant eye
The shiver'd wreck, emerging, points on high,
Where sea-gulls haunt, amid the ocean's roar:
[4] He gains with labour Cornwall's dreary shore.

That

* 'Messe tenus propriâ vive: et [1] granaria (fas est)
Emole: quid metuas? occa; et seges altera in herbâ est.
Ast vocat officium. [2] Trabe rupta, [3] Bruttia saxa
Prendit amicus inops: rémque omnem, surdáque vota
Condidit: [4] Ionio jacet ipse in littore, et unà

That he may save some portion of renown,
[5] Nor bear a mean petition through the town,
Can we not sell? Cries one, "with acres part!
[6] I know whose heir would take it much to heart.
Scarce would his funeral decently pass off:
[7] At promised pomp the nettled squire would scoff.
What! with impunity the estate impair!"—
But philosophic Gray would little care,
And, by [8] the forty sages unperplex'd,
Hold, [9] such degenerate wants our nation vex'd
Since they taught wisdom, who long taught to dance,
And to ape Reason, was a mode from France.'

The versions from Petrarch profess to be executed on the principle, that 'the translator ought to express the author's thoughts, in the same manner that he would have done if he had written in the same language.' How far Mr. P. has executed this task, the reader will be able to judge by the following specimen:

SONETTO LXIX.

Erano i capei d'oro all' aura sparsi,
Che'n, &c.

'SONNET.

'HIS REASON FOR LOVING LAURA AT THIRTY, WHEN HER BEAUTY WAS IMPAIRED.

'Her golden locks were in the wind display'd,
That blew them round a thousand graceful ways,
While in her eyes an undiminish'd blaze
Still beam'd; though now by Time less vivid made;
And pity, as I thought, her looks display'd,
But know not if, as true, it tempted praise:
That Youth then fired my bosom, can it raise
In any wonder, with such fuel's aid?
'Twas not the motion of a mortal's form,
But something heavenly, and her speech's sound
Unlike to what we hear on earth below.
'Twas some pure spirit; a bright sun, around

Ingentes de puppe Dei: jamque obvia mergis
Costa ratis laceræ. Nunc et de cespite vivo
Frange aliquid: largire inopi, [5] ne pictus oberret
Cæruleâ in tabulâ. "[6] Sed cœnam funeris hæres
Negliget iratus, quòd rèm curtaveris: [7] urnæ
Ossa inodora dabit; seu spirent cinnama surdum,
Seu ceraso peccent casiæ, nescire paratus.
Tùne bona incolumis minuas?" sed Bestius urget
[8] Doctores Graios: [9] ita fit, postquam sapere urbi
Cum pipere et palmis, venit nostrum hoc maris expers,
Fœnisecæ crasso vitiârunt unguine pultes.'

Appearing

Appearing then to beam its influence warm;
Nor can it heal the wound to unstring the bow *.'

The enthusiastic admirers of the original, we suspect, will be of opinion that it is possible to exhibit Petrarch with equal fidelity, and yet with more elegance and spirit, in the English language.

These volumes are embellished with several very beautiful engravings; among which are two portraits, one of Mr. *Penn* himself, taken from an original bust, and another of *Francesco Petrarca*, from a mould, after an original picture in the Piombino Palace at Rome.

ART. VI. *An Essay on the Structure and Formation of the Teeth in Man and various other Animals*; illustrated with Copper-plates. By Robert Blake, M. D. Being principally a Translation of his inaugural Dissertation, published at Edinburgh, September 1798. 8vo. pp. 240. 15s. Boards. Dublin. 1801. London, Cadell and Davies.

THOUGH the author is indebted, for many parts of this curious and interesting essay, to the materials afforded him in the works of preceding writers, he has discovered much ability, not only in the examination of their observations and opinions, but in pursuing those parts of the inquiry to which sufficient attention had not been paid. He has devoted a great portion of time and thought to the investigation of this obscure and complicated subject; and he has succeeded in giving a more perspicuous and satisfactory account of the structure and formation of the teeth, than any which has yet appeared.

Dr. Blake commences by tracing the rudiments of the temporary teeth, from the time of their appearance as a pulp, inclosed in a capsule or membrane, to that of their complete formation: but, as his remarks in this part of his work are not essentially different from those of Mr. Hunter, it is unnecessary to detail them. His observations on the membrane surrounding the pulp do not altogether accord with those of that distinguished writer; since, though they both principally ascribe the formation of the enamel (to which the present au-

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* This line was chosen, a century afterwards, for his motto, by a king of Naples, on his queen's death.

"Le roi Rène apres la mort d'Isabeau de Lorraine, sa première femme, prit cette devise:

"Un arc turquois avec la corde rompue, et le dernier vers de ce sonnet:

"Piaga per allentar d'arco non sana."

MEM. DE PETRARQUE.'

thor prefers giving the name of *cortex striatus*) to this membrane, Dr. B. describes it as adhering firmly, after a certain period, to the neck of the tooth; and therefore as not being liable in dentition to the pressure from below, which many are disposed to regard as producing some of the most alarming symptoms of that period. From this circumstance, and from the membrane itself being always absorbed as soon as the enamel is completed, he infers, in a subsequent part of the volume, that the symptoms occurring in dentition generally arise from other causes than those to which they have been usually ascribed; and that, when topical irritation is produced, it arises from pressure of the tooth on the gum itself, and very seldom requires any operation.

Of the formation of the permanent teeth, the author gives this account:

'When the rudiments of the temporary teeth are tolerably advanced, the internal part of the gum, or rather the upper part of each membrane destined to form one of the temporary teeth, sends off a new sac. These sacs are each at first contained in the socket of the one to which it is to succeed; and are so intimately connected with the membranes of the temporary teeth, that they cannot be separated without tearing one or both, and may be torn along with the first sacs out of the sockets.'—

'As the sacs of the permanent teeth advance, the sockets of the temporary ones become enlarged, and little niches are formed in the internal plate of the alveolar processes answering to each socket, which are situated rather laterally, that is to say, at a greater distance from the symphysis or centre of the jaw, than the centre of each respective temporary socket. These niches do not penetrate so deep as to the bottom of the temporary sockets, but encrease in proportion with the size of the permanent sacs, and gradually form a distinct socket round each of them. There is, however, an opening left immediately under the gum, through which the membranes of both sets of teeth continue to be connected.'

So early as the fourth month after conception, the rudiments of the anterior permanent grinder may be seen; originating, in the manner now described, from the posterior temporary one, and contained in the same socket: 'but,' continues the author,

'As the permanent grinder advances and the jaw increases in length, a process is sent backwards from the upper part of its membrane, which at first is contained in the same socket. This process gradually swells into a sac, in which is contained the pulp, whence the middle grinder is to be formed; and as ossification advances, the parts become separated by a bony partition, the connexion however is still kept up. When the membrane of the middle grinder is tolerably advanced, it sends off a process in a similar manner, to form the sac of the posterior grinder or wisdom tooth.'

Dr.

Dr. B. accounts for the shedding of the teeth by the permanent teeth rising and pressing against the socket and fangs of the former, and thus producing the absorption and the consequent separation of the body of the tooth from the jaw. If this pressure is by any means prevented from taking place, the temporary tooth, instead of losing its roots, and falling out, will retain them, and continue fixed in its socket.

Mr. Hunter was of opinion that the enamel could not, like the other bones, be affected in colour by madder: but Dr. Blake has seen it evidently tinged in a young pig which had been fed for some time on that substance. This effect, he concludes from some ingenious experiments of Dr. Rutherford (Botanical Professor at Edinburgh), made with the view of ascertaining the reason why the bones receive a much deeper tinge than any other part of the body, is owing to the union, at the time of its deposition, of the matter which forms the enamel, with the colouring particles of the madder dissolved in the serum.

'The colouring of the bones of a living animal by the use of madder (says the learned Professor) is in every circumstance analogous to the preparation of lakes. The colouring matter of the madder, passing unaltered through the digestive organs of the animal, enters the general mass of fluids, and is dissolved in the serum of the blood; to which, indeed, if it be in large proportion, it communicates a very sensibly red tinge. But there is always present in the blood, and in a state of solution in the serum, a quantity of the earthy matter of the bones, phosphate of lime, ready to be deposited, as the exigencies of the animal shall require. Now, the phosphate of lime is an excellent mordent to madder, has a strong affinity to it, and consequently is admirably fitted to afford a base to the colouring matter of it, and thus forms a lake. This is what actually takes place, whenever, in such circumstances, by a peculiar animal process, the matter (which probably serves to keep the phosphate in solution) being withdrawn, this concretes within the cellular texture, into the fibrous and solid matter of the bones: for at the instant of its losing its solubility, it powerfully attracts and combines with the colouring matter of the madder, that is present in the serum, communicating insolubility also to this colouring matter, and hence they both concrete together into a homogeneous mass, not white or colourless, as the pure earth of bones usually is, but tinged of a full crimson or carmine colour.

'That this is actually the case may be shewn by various experiments. Thus, if to an infusion of madder, in distilled water, be added a little of the muriate of lime, no change is perceived; but if to this mixture be added a solution of the phosphate of soda, immediately a double elective attraction takes place: the muriatic acid, combining with the soda, remains suspended or dissolved in the water; while the phosphoric acid, thus deprived of its soda, combines with the lime, which the muriatic acid had parted with, and

forms phosphate of lime, or earth of bones. This substance being, however, insoluble in water, falls to the bottom: but having combined, at the instant of its formation, with the colouring matter of the madder, they fall down united into a crimson lake, precisely of the same tint with that of bones of young animals, which have been fed with madder.'—

'The enamel of the teeth receives no colour—because in fact there is no change in that substance, with respect to either secretion or absorption after it is once formed.

'But it by no means follows, that the enamel of the teeth may not acquire a tinge, in the same manner as the earth of bones, provided that the fluids of the body were sufficiently loaded with the colouring matter of madder, or other such tinging material, at the time that the enamel is secreted, or first assumes a concrete form; as in young animals while their teeth are just in a nascent or incipient state; or perhaps still better, in the fœtus in utero, viz. by mixing the tinging materials plentifully with the food of the mother during her gestation.'

Dr. Blake has devoted a chapter of his work to the consideration of the teeth of various animals, and particularly of the graminivorous; which are distinguished by having the enamel not only covering the body of the tooth, but descending through its substance, and forming a variety of convolutions. We do not, however, conceive it necessary to analyze this part of his essay, because we have already noticed an account not materially different, given in two memoirs by Mr. Corse and Mr. Home, in the Philosophical Transactions for 1799*. Yet it is proper to mention, in justice to the present author, that, from the statement given in a supplement to this volume, it appears that his account of the Structure of the Teeth of Graminivorous Animals was published at Edinburgh, in a thesis, in September 1798, which was some time before the papers above mentioned were laid before the Royal Society; and that, about the beginning of the same month, he discovered, by a longitudinal section, that the same principles were applicable to the tooth of the elephant. The latter circumstance occurred too late for insertion in his thesis, but he had an engraving immediately taken of the section of the tooth, which was shewn, and a copy of his thesis presented, in the company of some of the author's friends, about the same period, to Mr. Corse, then in Edinburgh; who admitted the novelty and importance of Dr. B.'s discoveries, and promised to notice them in his intended publication. The Doctor, therefore, feels himself much hurt, and with apparent reason, that his thesis should have been passed unnoticed by both the gentle-

* See Rev. N. S. vol. xxxi. p. 232, &c.

men

men above named; and that an engraving, precisely similar to that which was shewn to Mr. Corse and the author's friends, should have been given in each of their papers without acknowlegement or remark.

ART. VII. *A Rough Sketch of Modern Paris;* or, Letters on Society, Manners, Public Curiosities, and Amusements, in that Capital. Written during the last two Months of 1801 and the first five of 1802. 8vo. pp. 319. 6s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1803.

WE do not apprehend that we need yet say,

"Too much of Paris hast thou, gentle reader;"

though several publications have appeared, since the Peace, professing to be descriptive of this city in its modern state. Curiosity is alive on this subject; and those who have neither leisure nor ability to explore for themselves will be thankful to that traveller who endeavours, by the minuteness of his details and the accuracy of his delineations, to compensate to them for the want of an ocular survey. By blending together several accounts of historians, equally intelligent and faithful, a more satisfactory knowlege will be obtained than from one solitary narrative, however judiciously compiled. Though the season, order, and method of observation, and the colouring which the habits and prejudices of different men throw on the same objects, must influence description; yet, by weighing and comparing several statements together, the judicious reader may collect ideas which nearly approach to accuracy. After a most subversive revolution and sanguinary war, the Englishman cannot visit Modern Paris, nor be received by the Modern Parisian, with calmness and insensibility; and such is the state of the public mind in both countries, that we must often seek truth by hearing many witnesses.

The author of the present rough sketch is intitled to distinction among the several delineators of Modern Paris. He possesses a clear and well-informed mind; he has given particular attention to whatever fell under his observation; and his style is easy, gentlemanly, and unaffected. Of himself and of his undertaking he thus speaks in the preface:

'To divest myself, as much as possible, from every prejudice, has been a duty which I have strictly endeavoured to fulfil; yet I fear, such is the effect of early habit, that many marks will still be discovered of national predilection. I beg leave, as a check against faults of this kind, which I may have involuntarily committed, to request my reader to remember, that the observations now laid before him, are those of a man accustomed to English opinions, English

glish society, and English manners. In judging of another country, a foreigner cannot help making a comparison between what he has known at home and what he sees abroad. In doing so, the partiality, which he naturally entertains for his own customs, may lead him to condemn, as faults, what may be simply deviations from the former. That such is the general bias of the human mind, I am fully aware, and I cannot flatter myself that mine has escaped it. This consideration must plead my excuse with the French, if I should sometimes appear severe; and the same ought to prevent my countrymen from placing too implicit a confidence in my judgments, where it may be my misfortune to condemn. My hand has faithfully drawn what my eye beheld; but the sight may be jaundiced, and, in that case, the picture will be incorrect.

'The intention of this work being simply to describe the internal situation of the French capital, all religious and political discussions will be avoided. The causes, events, and consequences of a revolution, which has no parallel in history, I leave to abler and more experienced writers. To point out to strangers the objects most interesting at Paris, to convey some previous information to those who intend going thither, and to lay before such as are prevented, by their other occupations, from undertaking the journey, an account of the pleasures, festivals, buildings, and mode of living in that metropolis, is the task I have undertaken, a task which, however comparatively humble, is neither useless nor unimportant.'

The Letters which form this volume correspond to the account given of them by their author; who appears to have made the most of his time by seeing every thing remarkable in the French capital, and minutely detailing the result of his observations for the amusement and information of his friends. There are 32 letters; of which the first is dated October 30, 1801, and the last, May 14, 1802. With reflections on the landing at Calais, the narrative commences; whence we pass to the conduct of the custom-house officers, municipality, and commissaries;—to the theatre;—to the comfortable inn at Montreuil, celebrated by Sterne;—to the behaviour of landlords, waiters, and post-boys, who are said to be civil, and the people in general to be 'not only civil but respectful, and infinitely more so than before the Revolution;'—to the magnificent but miserable inn at Amiens;—to Chantilly, and to Paris; where the first thing noticed is the difficulty of obtaining lodgings. The following is the first memorandum made for the benefit of the author's countrymen who intend a visit to the seat of the Chief Consul:

'The inns are nearly as dear as those of England; and it is now not less necessary, than under the *ancien régime*, to make a previous bargain *, before the horses are taken from the carriage. If

* In the 24th letter, the author gives a proof of this statement by adducing the heavy charge at the *Little Vatican* for one night's lodging;

If this is not done, impositions and disputes are sure to occur.

'On arriving at Paris, I drove to several hotels, before I could get accommodated *at all.* I am now wretchedly lodged, and fear, from what I have already seen and heard, that I must waste a considerable portion of valuable time, before I shall obtain such apartments as I wish. Good rooms are very scarce, many of the *hôtels garnis* having been unfurnished during the revolution, and those which remain being nearly filled with foreigners, who, since the peace, have flocked hither in great numbers, from every nation of the world.

'Persons, intending to visit Paris, ought to write some days beforehand to their correspondents, if they desire to be comfortably lodged on their arrival.'

To the palace and garden of the Thuilleries, to the Louvre, to the Museum of the Arts, and to the Gallery of Antiquities, our attention is next directed. We are pleased with the traveller's account of the effect produced on his imagination and feelings, by the magnificent and well arranged collection of pictures in the gallery of the Louvre; the length of which is at least equal to a quarter of an English mile:

'At last I found myself in the magnificent room, which I have before mentioned, the walls of which are covered as far as the eye can reach with the sublimest efforts of human art. Where the mind has long been promised a pleasure, when fancy has dressed it in all her choicest colours, how seldom does the reality approach the phantom of heated imagination. For once I was not disappointed. I expected, it is true, a high gratification. I had formed to myself an exalted idea of the objects, which I was about to visit, yet the satisfaction I felt exceeded, far exceeded, what I supposed it possible for the power of sight to afford; nor did I believe that the hand of man was capable of attaining that degree of perfection, which I now beheld. For some time I was lost in wonder, I knew not where to fix my enraptured eye. A catalogue which was offered me, by one of the attendants, and which, as I afterwards found, is drawn up with great clearness and precision, roused me from this pleasing reverie, and gave some order to the train of my thoughts. The arrangement of the collection is admirable.

'After viewing the masterpieces of le Sueur, le Brun, Nicolas Poussin, and the three Van Loos, I supposed I had already seen the utmost efforts of the art, and even, under this supposition, was ready to allow that my highest ideas of the power of painting fell short of what these specimens presented. Think of my surprise, when, looking on my catalogue, I found that I had not yet passed the limits of the French school. Astonished and delighted I went on. The Flemish, Dutch, and German masters occupy the second division. Among

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ging: but, by appealing to a poor-looking magistrate, resembling the *pannosus ediiis* at *Ululræ*, he obtained satisfaction, without paying any costs, not even so much as for the summons. Well might an Englishman remark this circumstance! *Rev.*

them

them I beheld the exquisite works of Van Dyck, of Hans Holbein, of Paul Potter, of Rembrant, of Teniers, and of Rubens. Sublime as were the first objects that had claimed my admiration, even they were exceeded by the latter. Nor had I yet seen the acme of the art. Charmed with the fancy and execution of all the Flemish painters, I was particularly pleased with the beautiful pasturage, by Paul Potter, every object of which seems alive on the canvass.

'A few steps would bring me in view of the wonders of Italy, to see which so many of my countrymen had crossed the Alps; yet so enraptured was I with the objects already before me, that it required all the importunity of my companions, to persuade me to proceed. I was soon rewarded for this temporary sacrifice, and in contemplating the almost supernatural works of Corregio, of Caravaggio, of the Carracci, of Dominichino, of Guido, of Leonardo da Vinci, of Paul Veronese, of Raphael and of Titian, I discovered, that what I had seen before were only so many links in the great chain of perfection, which was now complete. If among these models of the art, you wish me to name some particular picture, I should give the preference to the communion of St. Jerome, by Dominichino, which in expression, colouring, feeling, and variety, seems to me to possess every beauty united.'

In the descriptive catalogue of antiquities, we have a history of the celebrated statue called *The Apollo Belvidere*; by which the reader is informed, in the true style of French vanity, that 'a hero guided by victory drew this statue from the Vatican, and has fixed it *for ever* on the banks of the Seine.'

Society in Paris is described as divided into three classes; 1st, *l'ancienne noblesse*, or old nobility; 2dly, the governmental class, or constituted authorities; and, 3dly, *les parvenus, ou nouveaux riches*, upstarts, or new gentry. The riches and luxury of this third class may be inferred from the following extract:

'Nothing can exceed the splendour of the persons of this description. The furniture of their houses, the dress of their wives, their table, their plate, their villas, in short, all the "*agrémens*" of life, are in the highest style of oriental magnificence.

'To give you some idea of their manner of living, I will describe to you the house of madame ——— *, which I yesterday obtained the permission of seeing, in her absence.

'The house is situate in a street leading from the Boulevard, and is approached by a fine court, of considerable length. The back of the house looks on a very pretty garden, arranged *à l'angloise*. It was formerly the residence of a minister of state.

'The drawing room, and *salle à manger* †, were not yet finished. The furniture prepared for them was rich. I did not think it particularly beautiful; but the bed room and bathing cabinet, exceeded in luxury every thing which I ever beheld, or even ventured to imagine.

* Recamier, we believe. *Rev.*

† Eating room.

glass. The canopy of the bed was of the finest muslin, the covering of pink satin, the frame of beautiful mahogany, supported by figures in gold of antique shapes. The steps, which led to this delicious couch, were covered with red velvet, ornamented on each side with artificial flowers, highly scented. On one side stood, on a pedestal, a marble statue of Silence, with this inscription:

"TUTATUR SOMNOS ET AMORES CONSCIA LECTI *."

On the other, a very lofty gold stand, for a taper or lamp. A fine mirror filled up one side of the bed, and was reflected by one at the top, and another at the opposite side of the room. The walls were covered with mahogany, relieved with gold borders and now and then with glass. The whole in excellent taste. The bathing cabinet, which adjoined, was equally luxurious. The bath, when not in use, forms a sofa, covered with kerseymere edged with gold; and the whole of this cabinet is as pretty as the bed room. Beyond this room is the bed chamber of *monsieur*, plain, neat, and unaffected; and on the other side a little closet, covered with green silk, and opening on the garden, in which *madame* sits, when she amuses herself with drawing. To conclude, I find the "loves," which "Silence guards," and of which this paphian seat is the witness, are those of January and May; for the wife is twenty (the greatest beauty of Paris), and the husband something less than sixty.'

The author next relates his being present at the opening of the Legislative Body; his visit to the benevolent institution in behalf of the deaf and dumb; and a specimen of the dullness and pedantry of Parisian society at a *thé* or evening party.

At last we come to the great feature of the picture, Bonaparte; and his portrait, though sketched with a few strokes, is (we are inclined to think) a strong likeness:

'His complexion is uncommonly sallow, his countenance expressive but stern, his figure little but well made, and his whole person, like the mind which it contains, singular and remarkable. If I were compelled to compare him to any one, I should name Kemble, the actor. Though Bonaparte is much less in size, and less handsome than that respectable performer, yet in the construction of the features, and in the general expression, there is a strong resemblance. There is, however, such originality about the appearance of the first consul, that, without having seen him, it is difficult to form an idea of his person. The picture of Bonaparte at the review, exhibited some time back in Piccadilly, and the bust in *Sèvre china*, which is very common at Paris, and which has probably become equally so in London, are the best likenesses I have seen. As to his dress, he wore the grand *costume* of his office, that is to say, a scarlet velvet coat, richly embroidered with gold, to this he had added leather breeches, jockey boots, and a little plain cocked hat, the only ornament of

* Silence guards the slumbers and the loves of this bed.'

which

which was a national cockade. His hair unpowdered was cut close in his neck.'

The speeches at the Tribunate are noticed as dull exhibitions: but the display of the ladies at the *bal des étrangers* was of an opposite character; and the author represents the indecorous mode of dressing, adopted by the Parisian *belles*, in as strong a light as any recent traveller. His reflections on this fashion deserve the attention of all such votaries of the mode.

A glance is taken of the various amusements of the Palais Royal, and we have a detailed account of the theatres, or *spectacles*.

At a party at the house of a *fournisseur*, or army contractor, the author saw General Berthier; and, that we may see him with our mind's eye, he informs us that

'He is a little man, plainly dressed, with cropped hair. His countenance is expressive, when he speaks; but his figure is diminutive, and his appearance by no means military. He is extremely polite, gentlemanly, and affable. I am told, he is by birth "*gentil-homme*;" and by his manner it is easy to see, that he must have passed the early part of his life in good company.'

The supper at a ball given by a *ci-devant* noble is represented as consisting of soups, hot dishes, *ligumes*, fruit, and pastry; after which, as a remove, two large plates, one of turbot and the other of salmon, made their appearance. This will strike the English reader as a singular arrangement: but it is asserted that '*all* good French suppers conclude with fish.'

Particular notice is taken of the Carnival, and of the masks, processions, &c. in the streets; and it is remarked, in praise of the Parisians, that, in the midst of their mirth and levity on this occasion, no indecency shocks the public eye, no drunken persons make their appearance, no woman is insulted, and no quiet inoffensive man dragged into a quarrel.

We are next presented with accounts of Bonaparte's audience, and of his address to the English gentlemen introduced to him; —of the antichamber of the *Musée Central*;—of the *Bois de Boulogne* and the promenade;—of the *palais du Luxembourg* and of the Pantheon;—of Versailles, St. Cloud, Petit Trianon, St. Germain, Malmaison, and the Waterworks at Marly;—of the Promenade to *Long Champ*, and of the *Te Deum* sung at *Nôtre Dame* in honour of the peace and the re-establishment of Religion;—of the Tribunals, or courts of law;—of the Manufactory of *Gobelins*, the Establishments of *les Enfans trouvés* and *les Invalids*, and *le Musée des monumens François*. To the last, a list is subjoined of those monuments most deserving of notice, which have been preserved from the destructive hand of the Revolution; and from the tombs of departed greatness, a

postscript

postscript transports us to the festivity of the living, to nothing less than a Consular dinner at the Tuilleries, to which the wife of this gentleman was invited by the Chief Consul. The following is the statement of it which she gave to her husband on her return:

'The entertainment was extremely elegant, and the sight very striking. More than two hundred persons sat down to table in a splendid apartment. The company consisted, besides the family of Bonaparte, of the ministers, the ambassadors, several generals, senators, counsellors of state, and other constituted authorities The number of women present was by no means in proportion to that of the men, and did not exceed fifteen. All the English ladies, who had been presented to madame Bonaparte, were invited (though not their husbands) to this entertainment; but it happened, that only two remained at Paris.

'The dinner was served entirely on plate and *Sèvre china*, the latter bearing the letter B on every dish, and every plate; and the *plateau* was covered with moss, out of which arose innumerable natural flowers, the odour of which perfumed the whole room.

'The first consul and madame Bonaparte conducted themselves with much ease, and spoke very affably to those around them.

'The servants were numerous, splendidly dressed, and highly attentive. The dinner lasted more than two hours.'

A letter is devoted to a description, or rather enumeration, of the various literary establishments of Paris, which reflect so much honour on the French nation. It is remarked that

'Perhaps there is no town in the known world, which affords such favourable opportunities of acquiring and cultivating knowledge, as that from which I am now writing. On this subject, equality in the best sense exists; and while the poor man has the finest libraries, and most extensive collections opened to his use, without any expence whatever, he, whose circumstances are moderately easy, obtains, for a trifling consideration, every possible means of additional improvement.'

If this traveller throws temptations in the way of the reader, and excites within his breast a strong desire of visiting the French capital, on the other hand he endeavours to allay such anxiety by prudential considerations. All schemes of emigration, under the idea of living cheaper than in England, he discourages by a calculation and statement of expences at Paris. The French, it is well known, in their ordinary mode of living, practise more self-denials than we do, and have not in their language a word which expresses what we mean by *comfort*; it is proper, therefore, that, in an estimate of the expence of an English family at Paris, we should consider it 'with English ideas and English habits;' and thus contempla-

ting the subject, the author asserts that they would spend very little less than in London. Here is the detail:

'I repeat, then, that an English family settling here, with English ideas and English habits, would spend very little less than they would do in London, with a similar establishment.

'To enable you to judge for yourself on this subject, I shall mention the prices of the most essential articles of expence; some of which are lower, while others are infinitely higher.

'Meat is much cheaper, being only eleven or twelve sols per pound (or five or six pence English).

'Bread bears, at present, nearly the same price in the two countries.

'The keep of horses costs infinitely less at Paris than in London.

'Poultry is cheaper; and wine of the best kind may be bought for something more than we pay for good port.

'On the other hand, house rent is equally dear, if not dearer. Furniture is exorbitant; and dress of all kinds, both for men and women (only excepting shoes and gloves), is, beyond comparison, dearer in price, and more expensive in its kind.

'The price of amusements, in the first places, is nearly the same at the large theatres of Paris, as at those of London; and *spectacles* being infinitely more frequented at the former than in the latter city, much more is spent, in this article, in the one than in the other capital.

'Groceries are dearer, and fuel at least double.—Putting these articles, the one against the other, perhaps with economy eleven hundred pounds in Paris might purchase as many conveniencies as twelve in London. But I think even this difference is liberally allowed.'

For a finale, we are presented with a general view of Paris, principally taken as compared with London. Here the capitals of the two countries are contrasted, and their distinct merit is fairly appreciated. We have already made such ample extracts, that we must content ourselves with only a passage or two from this interesting letter:

'In width, cleanliness, and beauty, the streets of London have such a decided advantage over those of Paris, that I believe even a Frenchman would acknowledge, that the question could not be disputed. The footpaths of the former, on which the pedestrian may walk without danger or dirt; the excellent pavement, which prevents any fatigue from being experienced in the use of a carriage; and the brilliancy of the lamps at night, which renders the passage, in an evening, from one part of the town to another, rather a pleasure than a pain, are but ill contrasted by the narrow and filthy lanes of the latter, in which persons on foot are constantly exposed to every kind of accident and inconvenience; to the neglected carriage-ways, in moving over which individuals are bruised, and wheels rapidly worn out; and to the dismal and uncertain light, which a few lanterns,

hung by cords suspended from the opposite houses, faintly affords. But if the streets of Paris must yield to those of London, the former city is undoubtedly superior in its palaces and public buildings, and in the height, style, and architecture of private houses, the stone fronts, regular plan, and lofty dimensions of which, have a very commanding appearance. But though the edifices are finer, and the arrangement more convenient, each floor consisting of a complete set of rooms, yet, from their great size, it usually happens that the same house is inhabited by several families, and the stairs, consequently, becoming public, are as dirty and as disgusting as the common streets. Where too an individual keeps an entire house in his possession, the number of his servants is rarely proportioned to the size of his habitation, and either only a part is occupied, or the whole is neglected and in bad order.'—

'The eating rooms of French houses are very disgusting. Instead of the comfortable turkey carpet, handsome curtains, *stuccoed* walls, blazing fire, and ornamental sideboard, of a London parlour, the dinner is here served in a dark and gloomy apartment, called "*la salle à manger*," imperfectly heated with a stove, the floor generally of stone, and always without a carpet, the windows without curtains or shutters, and the whole dirty and uninviting. Where there is not a separate antichamber, the servants occupy the dining rooms in the absence of their masters; and, in that case, the smell, which such company are apt to leave, is extremely offensive.'—

'To those who are fond of the arts, and who devote their time to the pursuit, Paris offers objects of great interest and unequalled beauty. Persons who pass their lives in a career of dissipation, who are satisfied with public amusements, bought pleasures, and high play, will find here, decked in all the joys of variety, the means of gratifying their favourite wishes. To such as come to view the curiosities of the place, Paris will appear delightful during a residence of two or three months, as that time will be fully and agreeably occupied in examining its various institutions, and in visiting its different theatres, particularly if the traveller arrives in the beginning of spring, when the charms of nature are added to those of art. But to him whose attachments are centred within the circle of his own family, who is fond of the investigation of truth, and whose early days have been passed in the polished societies of London, Paris, after its great and striking beauties have once been sufficiently viewed, will appear comparatively tame, dull, and uninteresting. He will daily miss the freedom of conversation, which is so generally prevalent in England; he will look in vain for that manly sense, with which great national questions are discussed by men of education in London; he will be irritated by the flippancy of French politicians, and by the pedantic terms and laboured sentences, which take the place of sound argument and solid reasoning. He will find the amusements rather various than splendid. He will find society difficult when it is good, and dangerous when it is easy. He will admire the grace and elegance of the ladies, and will look with an eye of pity, if not of contempt, on the indelicacy of their dress. He will hear "la bonne compagnie" talked of in every set, and never defined. He will

perhaps at last discover that it only exists, where it does not assume the name, or, as Voltaire says,

"Qui ne s'appelle pas la bonne compagnie, mais qui l'est."

He will view with wonder and admiration the works of art, and see with no little pleasure and curiosity the extraordinary man now at the head of government. Such will be his principal sources of satisfaction at Paris. He will soon discover that every thing else, however blazoned out in the trappings of grandeur, or vamped up in the colouring of hyperbole, is only "air and empty nothing."

Our apology for amplification, in the present instance, must be found in the good sense and discriminating judgment of the author of these letters; which not only contain the fullest account of the public curiosities and state of society and manners in modern Paris, that has yet been given by any of our countrymen, but are written in a manner which inspires confidence in the veracity of the narrator. The work is indeed called *a rough sketch*, and is not to be supposed complete, nor totally devoid of errors: but they are few and unimportant in comparison with its merits. The typography is incorrect: but the addition of an ample *Index* deserves praise.

ART. VIII. *Letters from France.* Written by J. King, in the Months of August, September, and October, 1802. In which some Occurrences are related which are not generally known; and many Conjectures may be found that seemed to have anticipated recent Events. 8vo. pp. 168. 5s. Boards. Jones. 1803.

THE writer of these letters does not, like the anonymous author of those just noticed, undertake a regular description of Paris, though every letter is dated from that city: but he chiefly employs himself in reflections on the past scenes of the revolution, to which are added anticipations of future events. We are informed, indeed, that Paris cannot be drained because it is built on a quarry;—that the foot-passenger is now in as imminent danger of being run over by carriages in the streets as before the revolution, and that 'to bear being knocked down patiently is a proof of good citizenship;' —that Paris swarms more than ever with spies;—that, whatever sanctity there may be in the churches, in every other part of the city, obscenity, immorality, and profligacy abound;— and that John Bull must expect to encounter exorbitant *traiteurs*, pilfering *bourgeois*, and tricking tradesmen, out of number. Excepting such notices as these, and a few remarks concerning Bonaparte, (some of which are not accurate, *e. g.* that 'he never goes abroad for recreation,') we find little which relates

lates to the present state of things. Mr. King is so deeply occupied in retrospection, that, in a letter dated Paris Oct. 1802, he speaks of 'visitors who *come* to the places of public amusement, streaming with blood from the massacres of the Chatelet, or *La Force*,' and says that he found 'no propensity to join in frivolous mirth, when the screams and groans of dying martyrs were vibrating in his ears;' as if these horrors, which have blackened the French Revolution, were still perpetrated. He seems proud of having been introduced to Santerre, the Brewer, who led the memorable attacks on the Bastile and the Tuilleries on the 10th of August, and commanded the National Guard when the ill-fated Louis XVI. perished on the scaffold. From him Mr. K. collected some anecdotes relative to the Bastile, and heard his apology or justification for ordering the drums to beat when the king endeavoured to harangue the people; a circumstance for which he has been universally condemned. Though Mr. King obtained introduction to Santerre by expressing a wish to inspect a brewing machine of his invention, the conversation soon left the brew-house for subjects of general politics, and the Bastile became the first topic of discussion:

'He shewed me (says the author) the master key of that tower of tyranny, within the walls of which so many crimes had been perpetrated; and several species of fetters, one pair of which had been found on the wrists of a man recently dead, who was either doomed by those who immured him in his cell to die thus miserably, or he was forgotten and starved to death. There was no register of this man's name or his imputed offence; human beings were but of little note in the estimation of the French Princes; though all are of the same nature, and of equal origin; people seem to have created artificial distinctions, and to have vested their governors with power for no other purposes than to reduce them to abjectness and slavery.

'There is no knowing what dreadful tragedies were acted in these profound subterraneous caves, where none entered but the victim and the executioner; if the fury of the populace had spared the governor, the world might have been furnished with a blacker catalogue of crimes than has yet been revealed; but their resentment was what such a scene, and the perfidy they met with, might naturally excite; the governor perished, and with him books, records, memorandums, and whatever could be found in a prison that for so many centuries had repressed liberty.'—

'Before I dismiss this subject of the Bastile, I will recite an occurrence that is well authenticated. It serves to elucidate the abuse of *lettres de cachet*: a man at an inn at Lyons, or near it, overheard Damien the assassin, confer on the design of killing Lewis the Fifteenth; as soon as the listener had collected all the intelligence he required, he hastened to Paris, got admission to the Minister, and told him what he had discovered; the Minister thought it an idle

story and paid no attention to it; but when Damien made his attempt on the King, the Minister trembled at his negligence and the consequences that might result to him from it: he deemed prevention more discreet than remedy, and obtained a *lettre de cachet* against the unhappy man who had informed him of Damien's design, that he might have no one to communicate with and tell of the Minister's inattention. I believe this unlucky being was immured for life, certainly he never saw the outside of the Bastile while the Minister lived.'

'Santerre thus defended his conduct towards the King:

'General Santerre has been blamed for commanding the drums to beat, when the King was haranguing the people on the scaffold; the King had in the tumult of Versailles, in the carnage of the Tuilleries, and in his long confinement and sufferings at the Temple, shewn a calmness that savoured of apathy; now for the first moment of his life he felt emotion and was ruffled; he has been censured too, for mentioning his death with exultation. I wished to question Santerre on these two points, I touched on them and paused, he saw my drift and without hesitation entered on the subject; he said it was expected there would be a cry of mercy, and he had received peremptory orders to fire on those who called for mercy; he saw several well known aristocrats surrounding the scaffold and preparing to cry out; an immense body of Marseillois watched them and meant to answer it with a contrary exclamation. If this contest had ensued, thousands would have perished in it; he perceived what was passing, and from the most humane motives, (and not to drown the King's voice, and distress him in his last few moments,) he ordered the drums to beat; and, though the duty of seeing the King's sentence executed, devolved on him, it was impossible he could rejoice at an event, that however necessary was distressing and lamentable; he deplored it as much as any man in France, and tryed all he could to prevent it by repeated visits to the Temple, to instruct the King by what measures he might still save himself; he said several expedients were proposed to the King, but his rejection of them evinced that he had no confidence in the nation and would retort upon it if ever he possessed power. Once he thought the King would accede to his overtures, but he required some hours to ponder on them; he saw the Queen in the interim and declined further treaty. In the last extremity he made another effort, he went once more to the King, and told him his life was in danger if he temporized any more, but if he would listen to his overtures the King would be saved and liberated, he would forfeit his existence if he failed; again the Queen interposed, and Santerre was set at defiance. Soon after his doom was fixed, and negociation was unavailable. He complains that the King had no character, that he spoke like a parrot, and his actions seldom accorded with his words; his diction was pure, he was sententious, he delivered virtuous sentiments, and spoke with dignity, yet in action he was inconsistent and frivolous, his language was from books of instruction, no originality in it; he repeated what was suggested to him, but his deeds could not be controlled; they

were sudden and untutored; they betrayed his speeches and shewed that the King was no better than an automaton.'

Of the Queen, we are told that 'she had an *unaccountable* passion for Madame Polignac;' this severity is, however, softened in another place, by a remark on the unvarying friendship of the amiable Princesse de Lamballe, who so cruelly perished at *La Force*, towards the persecuted Marie Antoinette. 'The best encomium on the Queen's character, is this lady's attachment; it gives me an idea of qualities that I did not before ascribe to Antoinette.'

One subject is repeatedly mentioned in the course of these letters, viz. the execution of twenty-two members of the convention, comprising Vergniaud, Condorcet, Barbaroux, Gaudet, Brissot, &c. With them, Mr. King is of opinion, perished the eloquence, the disinterestedness, and the credit of the National Assembly. Yet he is so far an apologist for the revolution, that he reminds us that its chief actors were not unprecedented in crimes:

'If there have been murders in Lewis the Sixteenth's time, so were there murders in Charles the First's time; if the French had a Carrier, we had a Kirke; their Robespierre hardly exceeded our Jeffreys: and the sacrifice of Bailly and the twenty-two had a precedent in the deaths of Russel and Algernon Sydney.'

The peace of Amiens is said to be 'ill-timed, and to resemble a covered snare;' and the government of France is accused of wishing to make England another department to the already over-grown republic. It appears, indeed, that this peace was not made in the true spirit of peace; and that it has not promoted that real amity between the two countries, which leads to mutual confidence and the willing interchange of all good offices. War is not absolutely terminated by the mere cessation of hostilities; for, if the spirit of animosity remains, this destructive fire is only smothered for a time, not extinguished. Statesmen, therefore, when they sheath the sword without endeavouring to conciliate the minds of the contending parties, perform their duty in a very defective manner; and nations pay dearly for such half measures.

These letters are very incorrectly composed both by the writer and the printer: but they occasionally exhibit shrewd remarks and unbiassed opinions.

ART. IX. *The Beauties of England and Wales;* or Delineations, Topographical, Historical, and Descriptive, of each County; embellished with Engravings. By John Britton and Edward Wedlake Brayley. Vols. I. and II. 8vo. 1l. 10s. 6d. (L. P. 2l. 8s.) Boards. Longman and Rees. 1801.

THE labours of Mr. Britton have before come under our review, and the account which we gave of his *Beauties of Wiltshire** will enable our readers to form a competent judgement of the nature and object of the present publication. The work is designed to form a regular *Britannia*, and to comprehend a description of the principal objects in each county, alphabetically arranged; and this intention has been successfully accomplished in those parts of the performance which we have now perused.

Topographical notices do not alone occupy the attention of the authors; we find several historical and biographical inquiries, which enliven these pages, and bestow an additional interest on the publication; while at the same time the soil, the vegetable and mineral productions, the manufactures, and the population of the different counties are carefully investigated and represented.

The first volume contains an account of the Shires of Bedford, Berks, and Buckingham; and, among a number of circumstances which necessarily have often been detailed, it introduces to our knowlege some particulars which are curious from their novelty, and valuable from their importance.—The account of Donnington Castle, which is situated near Speen in the County of Berks, is amusing:

'It rears its lofty head above the remains of the venerable oaks which once surrounded it, on an eminence north-east of the grove. It was formerly a place of much importance; and, by commanding the western road, gave to its possessors a considerable degree of authority. When it was originally built is uncertain; but from a manuscript preserved in the Cotton Library, it appears that it belonged to Walter Abberbury, who paid C shillings for it to the King. Towards the latter end of the reign of Richard the Second, Sir Richard Abberbury obtained a licence to rebuild it; and from him it descended to his son Richard, of whom it was purchased by Geoffrey Chaucer, the parent of English poetry.

'Hither about the year 1397, in the 70th year of his age, the bard retired, in order to taste those sweets of contemplation and rural quiet, which the hurry and fatigues of a court had before prevented his enjoying. In Gibson's edition of Camden, it is asserted, that "an oak was here standing till within these few years, under which Chaucer penned many of his famous poems." This tradition is in all

* M. R. Vol. xxxviii. N. S. p. 416.

probability

probability a mistake, as most, if not all, of Chaucer's poems were written before his retirement; and even so long as forty years ago not the least remains of it could be found after the strictest search, and most diligent enquiry, among the neighbouring inhabitants. That "he composed his pieces under an oak of his own planting," is a story that has likewise been current, but is an absolute impossibility, as he was not in possession of the estate more than three years. He died in London, whither he had gone to solicit the continuation of some of his grants, in the year 1400.

'Alice, the grand-daughter of the poet, by marriage with William de la Pole, Duke of Suffolk, conveyed the castle into his possession. This Lord was the favourite of Henry the Sixth; but having abused the power which he had obtained over that weak monarch, was banished by the Commons. On returning to England, he was seized near Dover by the partizans of the Duke of York, and beheaded. From him it descended to Edmund de la Pole, who being executed for treasonable practices in the reign of Henry the Seventh, it escheated to the crown, where it remained till the 37th of Henry the Eighth, when it appears to have been granted to Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk. In the reign of James the First, it belonged to the family of the Packers, whose heiress married Dr. Hartly, ancestor to Mr. Hartly, the present proprietor.

'In the civil wars it was a post of great consequence, being fortified as a garrison for the King, and the government entrusted to Colonel Boys. During these troubles it was twice besieged; the last time by Colonel Horton, who, raising a battery against it, at the foot of a hill near Newbury, fired upwards of 1000 shot, by which three of the towers were demolished, and part of the wall; but the governor refused either to give or accept quarter on any terms whatever; and bravely defended the ruined fortress till relieved by the King's army, when his gallant behaviour was recompensed with the honour of knighthood. The day after the second battle of Newbury, it was again summoned by the Parliament's generals, who threatened, if the castle was not surrendered, that not one stone should be left on another. To this the governor replied, "that he was not bound to repair it; but was determined by God's grace to keep the ground afterwards." Various offers were then made to induce him to give up the place, but the knight was inflexible; and though he had permission to retire with arms, cannon, ammunition, and every thing else that belonged to the garrison, only answered, "that he would not go out of the castle till he had the King's orders so to do." This was the most favourable opportunity that had occurred for ruining the King's affairs; but the dissensions which then prevailed in the enemy's camp caused them to neglect it, and after one fruitless assault, nothing further was attempted against the castle. The Monarch a few days afterwards, came unexpectedly to its relief, and escorted his artillery and baggage to Oxford in safety.

'In Camden's time, this castle was entire. He describes it as "a small, but very neat place, seated on the brow of a woody hill, having a fine prospect, and lighted by windows on every side." The walls nearly fronted the cardinal points of the compass; the en-

trance being at the east end. The west end terminated in a semi-octagon, inscribed in the half of a long oval. It was defended by four round towers placed on the angles. The length of the east end, including the round towers, was 85 feet; and the extent from east to west, 120 feet. All this part is destroyed. The remains, displayed in the vignette, consist of the stone gatehouse, with its two round towers, and a small part of the east wall. The gate-way is in good preservation, and the place for the portcullis may still be seen.

'A stair-case winds up the south tower to the summit of the castle, which commands a most beautiful view of the Hampshire hills, and the intermediate country. At the conclusion of the civil wars, the ruinous parts of the building were taken down, and a house erected with the materials at the bottom of the hill. Round the castle, almost occupying the whole eminence, are the entrenchments thrown up for its defence in modern times. The site of these is difficult to be traced from the bushes and briars with which they are overrun; but their *strength* explains the reply of the governor, which, considering the state of the castle at that time, must otherwise have been a vain-glorious boast.

'Great numbers of cannon-balls have been dug and ploughed up round the castle; and some years ago, as an old well was opened, four brass cannon were found, six and four pounders.'

Shaw House, which is about the distance of a mile east of Donnington Castle, is thus described:

'It is a large edifice, built with brick, mixed with a quantity of stone, and became celebrated for having been the head-quarters of King Charles at the time of the last battle of Newbury. In an old oak wainscot of a bow window in the library, is a hole about the height of a man's head. This aperture, according to tradition, was made by a bullet fired at the Monarch, as he was dressing himself at the window, by a musqueteer belonging to the Parliament's army. The shot narrowly missed him; and the wainscot has been carefully preserved as a memorial of the transaction.

'This house was built by an eminent clothier, named Doleman, about the latter end of the reign of Queen Elizabeth. This gentleman, being enriched by his business, resolved to erect a spacious mansion, where the evening of his days might be passed in ease and retirement. This determination, it appears, did not agree with the ideas of his neighbours, the remembrance of whose illiberality has been preserved even to our days by an odd sarcasm;

"Lord have mercy upon us miserable sinners!
Thomas Doleman has built a new house, and has turned away all his spinners!"

'The grotesque humor of this distich pleads strongly in favor of its antiquity; and the various Latin and Greek sentences inscribed upon different parts of the house, evince that the sneers of the neighbourhood were not unknown to the builder. The descendants of Mr. Doleman, though the heirs of his estates, were not the inheritors of his prosperity; for the possessions, being much decreased, were at length sold to the Duke of Chandos about 1740.'

On

On the subject of the White Horse, which is a figure formed on the north-west side of a high and steep hill situated about three miles from Lamborn, the authors expatiate at considerable length; considering it to be 'the most remarkable antiquity in all Berkshire.' They have adopted the opinion of Mr. Wise in ascribing its formation to Alfred, as a trophy of the signal victory which he obtained over the Danes at Ashdown, in that neighbourhood, in the year 871.

In the account of the town of Wantage, which is memorable for having given birth to Alfred, we meet with many interesting particulars relative to that great Prince, derived principally from Mr. Turner's History of the Anglo Saxons *.—This town is also celebrated for being the birth-place of Bishop Butler, author of the *Analogy*.

Gratitude and respect to a poet who has furnished us with much exquisite pleasure, and reflected distinguished honour on his country by his splendid genius and correct taste, induce us to transcribe the short account of Binfield; a pleasant village about two miles north of Cæsar's Camp, surrounded with elegant seats, and situated in the midst of the tract called the Royal Hunt, in Windsor Forest:

'The soil, though of a light sandy nature, produces very good corn; and the meadows are of a peculiar rich quality. Few of the farms exceed 100 acres; a circumstance which has probably contributed to keep down the poor rates during the present dearth of provisions. In this parish the rate is not more than six shillings in the pound. On the side of the turnpike-road from London is a small yet neat brick house, once the residence of Mr. Pope's father, but now the property of ——— Webb, Esq. Within half a mile of this building, in a retired part of the forest, on the edge of a common, is the favourite spot where the muse of Pope essayed the strength of her scarcely fledged pinions. On a large tree, beneath which the poet is said to have written many of his juvenile pieces, the words HERE POPE SUNG are inscribed in capital letters. This emphatic sentence is annually revised by a person from Oakingham, at the expence we believe of a lady of that place. The seat has been long removed; and were it not for the above inscription, all recollection of this spot, so interesting to the admirers of poetical genius, would probably have been lost. The beginning of the poem of Windsor Forest was composed in these *still haunts*, which the poet appears to have had immediately before him, when he wrote these lines:

'There interspers'd in lawns and op'ning glades,
Thin trees arise, that shun each other's shades.
Here in full light the russet plains extend;
There wrapt in clouds the bluish hills ascend.
E'en the wild heath displays her purple dyes,
And 'midst the desart fruitful fields arise,

* See our last Number.

That,

That, crown'd with tufted trees, and springing corn,
Like verdant isles, the sable waste adorn.'

Park place, the seat of the Earl of Malmesbury, is described at considerable length. The following passage displays a memorial highly honourable to the character of its late possessor, Field Marshal Conway:

'On a well-chosen eminence, near the southern quarter of the ornamented grounds, stands a curious vestige of the manners of antiquity. This is denominated a DRUID'S TEMPLE, and was presented to General Conway by the inhabitants of the isle of Jersey, as a testimony of the respect and gratitude due to his vigilance as a governor, and to his amiable qualities as a man. This invaluable gift was accompanied by an appropriate and forcible inscription, which we shall transcribe in the words of the original.

'Cet ancien Temple des Druides
decouvert le 12me. Août, 1785,
sur le Montagne de St. Helier
dans l'Isle de Jersey;
a été présenté par les Habitans
à son Excellence le General Conway,
leur Gouverneur.

Pour des siécles caché, aux regards des mortels,
Cet ancien monument, ces pierres, ces autels,
Où le sang des humains offert en sacrifice,
Ruissela, pour des Dieux, qu'enfantoit le caprice.
Ce monument, sans prix par son antiquité,
Temoignera pour nous à la postérité,
Que dans tous les dangers Cesarée * eut un père,
Attentif, et vaillant, genereux, et prospere:
Et redira, Conway, aux siécles à venir,
Qu'en vertu du respect dû à ce souvenir,
Elle te fit ce don, acquis à ta vaillance,
Comme un juste tribut de sa reconnoissance.

'The stones which compose this temple are forty-five in number, and were all so carefully marked when taken down, as to be re-erected on this spot in their original circular form. They were discovered in the summer of the year 1785, on the summit of a rocky hill, near the town of St. Helier, by some workmen who were employed to level the ground as a place of exercise for the militia, and before that time were entirely hidden with earth, which appeared raised in a heap, like a large barrow or tumulus. The circumference of the circle is sixty-six feet; the highest of the stones about nine. They are from four to six feet in breadth, and from one to three in thickness. The entrance or passage faces the east, and measures fifteen feet in length, five in breadth, and four in height. The inside contains five cells, or cavities, varying in depth from two feet four inches to four feet three inches. The coverings of these cells and of the entrance are of stones from eighteen inches to two feet thick. Within this temple

'* The Latin name of the island.'

two

two medals were found: one of the Emperor Claudius; the other so obliterated as to be unintelligible. The accounts of the history and antiquities of Jersey are very imperfect, yet it seems probable, that it was once particularly the seat of Druid worship. So lately as the year 1691, when Mr. Poindextre wrote some tracts concerning it, there were no less than fifty assemblages of rude stones, which that gentleman considered as Druid temples or altars; yet nearly the whole of these antique memorials have since been demolished. When, or by whom, the present structure was covered up is unknown; but it is supposed to have been buried by the Druids themselves, to preserve it from the violence and profanation of the Romans. All the stones with which it is formed are as rough and unhewn as when taken from the quarry. This curious structure seems to be a combination of the Cromlech, the Kistvaen, the stones of Memorial, and the pure Druidical, or bardic Circle. It is a very singular relict of *British* antiquity, and highly deserving of preservation as a vestige of the customs of remote ages.—Park Place includes an area of 400 acres; an extent of ground, perhaps, that comprises as great a variety of interesting prospects, as any of similar limits in the kingdom.'

We shall terminate our extracts from this volume with the anecdote of the vicar of Bray:

'Bray, a small village, about one mile from Maidenhead, has been rendered memorable from the conduct of a vicar who possessed the benefice in the reign of Henry the Eighth, and the three succeeding Monarchs. This man was twice a Protestant and twice a Papist; and when reproached for the unsteadiness of his principles, which could thus suffer him to veer with every change of administration, replied, that, "he had always governed himself by what he thought a very laudable principle, which was never on any terms, if he could avoid it, to part with his vicarage *." His name appears to have been Symon Symonds. He died in the forty-first year of Elizabeth.'

To the consideration of Windsor and its Castle, nearly eighty pages are devoted; and the Marquis of Buckingham's celebrated seat at Stowe is illustrated by a full and amusing detail.

Volume II. comprehends the counties of Cambridge, Chester, and Cornwall, and supplies an equal stock of rational entertainment with the former. We quote the account

'* Several late writers, particularly Ireland and Ferrar, who have mentioned these circumstances, describe them as happening in the reigns of Charles the Second, James the Second, &c. This mistake throws the imputation of apostacy on the worthy person who held the vicarage towards the conclusion of the 17th century. It should be remarked, that the story was first published by Fuller, in his Church history; and as the author died in the year 1661, it is evident that it must have been circulated previous to that event.'

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of Cotele, in the last county, because the place is little known and is eminently beautiful, and because we can vouch that the description is accurate:

'Cotele, or Cuttayle House, in the parish of Calstock, is an ancient mansion, which formerly gave the name of Cotele to a family, whose last heiress having married an Edgcumbe upwards of three centuries ago, it has, with the other possessions of the Coteles, devolved to their descendant, the present Earl of Mount Edgcumbe. It is from the "winding vale" of the Tamar, of which his Lordship's seats at this place and at Mount Edgcumbe are regarded as two of the principal ornaments, that his Lordship's title of Viscount Valletort is derived *. Cotele is situated on a bold knoll on the western bank of the river; but it is so surrounded with wood, that the water can only be seen from some of the higher apartments. It is an irregular stone building, inclosing a small quadrangle, the entrance to which is through a square gateway tower on the south. Beyond the buildings which form the north side of the quadrangle, there is a large square tower, in which are the more spacious apartments. The windows towards the east and south are narrow, arched at the top, and darkened with iron gratings; those towards the quadrangle, and those in the north tower, are wide and square. The buildings probably underwent some alterations about the year 1627, as that date appears carved in stone over the gateway.

'This mansion is an object of much curiosity, from the antiquity of the furniture, which is reported to have been of the workmanship of the days of Henry the Eighth and Queen Elizabeth, and to have remained in the house ever since the time of the latter Sovereign. The Hall contains a great collection of ancient armour, arquebusses, pikes, and other implements of war, ranged against the walls in various forms. The horns of a large stag, some elephants' tusks, and the heads of two antelopes, are also preserved here. At one end of the hall is the complete figure of a man, armed cap-a-pee; and in the windows are painted some coats of arms. The chairs are most curiously carved and ornamented.

'The stair-case from the hall leads through a stone door-way into a chamber where Charles the Second slept for some nights. The bed furniture is of oriental workmanship, deeply fringed with various colored silks. In a second bed-chamber is a Saxon sword, about two feet long, and some ancient books; amongst which is a manuscript music-book, with the date 1556. In another apartment, more splendidly furnished, is a rich cabinet; a fine painting of the Adoration, dated 1569; an ancient sopha, covered with embroidery; a pair of ornamented brass dogs, upwards of four feet in height; and several antique ebony chairs, rudely carved. From inscriptions on brass plates on the backs of two of them, it appears that their present Majesties, with the Princess Royal and the Princesses Augusta and Elizabeth, on the 25th of August, 1789, "honoured this old man-

'* Valletort was once the title of another noble Cornish family, but this has long been extinct.'

sion

tion with their presence, and condescended to take a breakfast with the Earl and Countess of Mount Edgcumbe."

'Several of the rooms are hung with tapestry; and in one of them, ornamented with the figures of Romulus and Remus, is a singularly antique cabinet, with innumerable figures carved in wood. In another are a great variety of ancient drinking vessels, in glass and earthenware, of the most grotesque forms. The Chapel is small, and was ornamented with painted glass windows, but these are greatly damaged. The altar furniture is extremely rich. On one set is embroidered, in gold, the figure of the prophet Jeremiah; and several coats of arms in gold and purple. Another set is of royal purple velvet, embroidered with gold, and powdered with fleurs-de-lis in silver, and still farther ornamented with the figures of the twelve Apostles in stalls. Over the west end of the chapel is a small turret, surmounted with battlements and pinnacles, and containing two open compartments for bells. Over the east end is a small cross.

'The woods, particularly those between the house and the river, are embellished with some very noble trees. The Spanish chesnuts, in particular, have there attained immense size; spreading out their huge massy limbs, they are scarcely inferior in grandeur to the proudest oaks, and form, amidst the beautiful scenery of rock and wood which overhangs the river, such foregrounds as recall to the recollection the romantic works of Salvator Rosa. At the bottom of one of the grand sweeping hills, whose luxuriant covering embellishes this domain, stands a small Gothic Chapel, situated, with picturesque beauty, upon a little rocky eminence, rising very steeply from the river, and discovering its east end from amongst the trees, which shroud the other parts of the building.

'Upon one of the walls within side is painted the following account of its foundation, extracted from Carew's Survey of Cornwall. "Sir Ric: Edgcumbe was driven to hide himself in those his thicke woods, which overlook the river; what time being suspected of favouring the Earl of Richmond's party against King Richard the Third, hee was hotely pursued, and narrowly searched for, which extremity taught him a sudden policy to put a stone in his cap, and tumble the same into the water, while these rangers were fast at his heels, who looking down after the noyse, and seeing his cap swimming thereon, supposed that he had desperately drowned himself, gave over their farther hunting; and left him liberty to shift away, and ship over into Brittaine; for a grateful remembrance of which deelivery, hee afterwards builded in the place of his lurking a chappel." This in the year 1769 was repaired by George Lord Edgcumbe, his lineal descendant. In the east window is some painted glass, representing the figure of a female saint; St. George and the Dragon; the Crucifixion; and the arms of Edgcumbe. On the altar stands a neat gilt crucifix of wood, and a small image of a bishop in pontificalibus, also in wood. On each side of the altar is an old gothic painting: one represents a female figure, with a book in her hand; the other an angel, holding in his hands a sceptre, on the top of which is a bird. A painted tablet, affixed to one of the side walls, seems to represent a monument of Sir Richard Edgcumbe, the

founder

founder of the chapel, and comptroller of the houshold to King Henry the Seventh, who having been sent to France on a public embassy, appears, by the inscription, to have died in his return at Morlaix, in Brittany, on the 8th day of Sept. 1489; and to have been buried before the high altar of some church in that place. He is here painted as a knight in armour, kneeling on one knee before a desk; his helmit and gauntlets lie by his side: before him stands a bishop of the same design as the wooden figure which is placed on the altar.'

We subjoin the notice of Pentilly Castle, which contains a singular anecdote of one of its former possessors:

'Pentilly Castle, the property of Mr. Coryton, is beautifully situated on the verdant banks of the Tamar, about three miles below Cotele. The declivities towards the river are most luxuriantly wooded, and fine tall elms and limes, picturesque from age, stretch their broad branches over the approach to the mansion, which obtained the appellation of Castle from its embattled form. This, however, is its only point of resemblance, for the building is modern. The back ground of the scenery of Pentilly, when viewed from the river, is a lofty bank, adorned with a tower, with which a singular history is connected. This we shall relate in the very appropriate language of Mr. Gilpin, who has thus narrated the circumstances in his Observations on the Western Parts of England.

"Mr. Tilly, once the owner of Pentilly-House, was a celebrated atheist of the last age. He was a man of wit, and had by rote all the ribaldry and common-place jests against religion and scripture, which are well suited to display pertness and folly, and to unsettle a giddy mind; but are offensive to men of sense, whatever their opinions may be; and are neither intended nor adapted to investigate truth. The brilliancy of Mr. Tilly's wit, however, carried him a degree further than we often meet with in the annals of prophaneness. In general, the witty atheist is satisfied with entertaining his *cotemporaries;* but Mr. Tilly wished to have his sprightliness known to *posterity*. With this view, in ridicule of the resurrection, he obliged his executors to place his dead body, in his usual garb, and in his elbow chair, upon the top of a hill, and to arrange on a table before him, bottles, glasses, pipes, and tobacco. In this situation he ordered himself to be immured in a tower of such dimensions as he prescribed, where he proposed, he said, patiently to wait the event. All this was done; and the tower, still enclosing its tenant, remains as a monument of his impiety and prophaneness. The country people shudder as they go near it.

——"Religio pavidos terrebat agrestes
Dira loci:—sylvam saxumque tremebant."

'The fear-struck hind, with superstitious gaze,
Trembling and pale, th' unhallow'd tomb surveys,
And half expects, while horror chills his breast,
To see the spectre of its impious guest.'

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The account of St. Germain's and of Port Eliot is highly interesting, and appears to us, who are not unacquainted with the spot, to be faithful and just.—The County of Cornwall, which abounds with many curiosities, and is full of beautiful and picturesque imagery, has received from the authors of this publication that minute attention which its importance demanded.

To each volume is subjoined a catalogue of the works which have been principally consulted, and a comprehensive index. The engravings, nearly forty in number, are mostly executed with spirit and taste, and all are above mediocrity.—From the sentiments which we have expressed, and the extracts which we have made, it will be evident to our readers that we think favourably of this performance; and we cannot but wish that the design may be continued.

ART. X. *Essays on Agriculture*, with a Plan for the speedy and general Improvement of Land in Great Britain. By Benjamin Bell, F.R.S. Edin. &c. 8vo. pp. 570. 9s. Boards. Bell and Bradfute, Edinburgh; Robinsons, London. 1802.

AGRICULTURAL investigation merits ample encouragement, because it directs the attention of the public mind to the grand source of national prosperity and comfort; and though commerce, in various ways, may benefit states, their stability must ultimately depend on their internal resources. The farmer is employed in a process of incessant creation; the earth becomes prolific in proportion to the skill and energy which are exerted on it; and our first object, as a nation, should be to render ourselves physically independent of other countries, for it is in vain to boast of the advantages of trade while we are continually in danger of famine. The very nature of agriculture intitles it to a superior degree of protection and encouragement, compared with that which should be afforded to commerce; and it is to be lamented that Governments, looking to mere fiscal considerations, are in general more inclined to aid the latter than the former. They consider it, no doubt, as more easy to tax articles of luxury than necessaries of life; and to negociate loans with companies of merchants, who reside together in opulent cities, than with farmers whose necessary habits keep them scattered (as perhaps Mr. Burke would have expressed it) in individuality. We ought, however, to open our eyes and fairly contemplate the evils which must finally be generated by such a system; and the brilliancy of commerce, by which shallow statesmen are miserably fascinated, should not prevent our adverting to its short and transitory glory.

We are as little disposed as the author of the essays before us, to concur with those economists who represent agriculture as the *only* art that merits national encouragement: but we are clearly of opinion with him, 'that it not only deserves *more* than others, but that all arts and manufactures will thrive the more in consequence of the agriculture of the kingdom being fully improved and protected.' We also agree with Mr. Bell that 'those countries only can be said to be prosperous, and secure in the possession of riches, in which, by proper application of the national funds, agriculture is brought to the utmost degree of perfection of which it is capable; by which encouragement is given to a large population, and abundance of the necessaries of life secured for the people; nor, till this take place in Great Britain, are we entitled to say that we are opulent.' In what manner, however, this encouragement ought to be given, we are not prepared authoritatively to decide. Mr. B. in his third essay, on *the Improvement of Agriculture*, suggests the propriety of an extensive system of premiums annually voted by parliament, as the most effectual means of promoting a general spirit of emulation among farmers. He proposes that a large sum should be at the disposal of the Board of Agriculture, and other subordinate provincial Boards; to be dispensed in the form of premiums to those cultivators who shall grow the largest crops of potatoes, corn, &c.; for the best management of farms; for the best and most numerous stock, &c.; or to be advanced as loans without interest, for a period of ten years, to those who should undertake the improvement of such lands as the Board of Agriculture of the county shall judge to be capable of amelioration. For the former purpose, he would annually employ half a million, and for the latter two millions during a given period; in which manner, and according to his idea, at a very moderate expence, all the grounds in the kingdom which are fit for cultivation might be brought into the highest state that they are capable of assuming.

'The effect of large premiums (Mr. B. supposes) would be, to induce farmers to adopt new modes of management, such as the Boards of Agriculture might consider as improvements, but which otherwise would not commonly meet with their attention; for however defective and improper the customs which farmers have followed, are, it has in every country been observed, that they adhere to them with much obstinacy, and are seldom induced to depart from them, if premiums be not actually held forth to them for doing so.

'Under the influence, however, of the best improvers in their various districts, supported by the annual distribution of large premiums, this obstinacy, which, with too much reason perhaps, has been imputed to farmers, would soon probably cease, and give place to the

the desire of rational information and a candid disposition to adopt all useful plans of improvement: but, if the scheme be not from its first outset supplied with ample funds, it would be carried into effect without vigour; no benefit would result from it; and, in the course of a short time, those who at first were induced to engage in it would take no further charge of it.'

As far as the general principle is concerned, we may concur with Mr. B., but we hesitate in going with him to the extent of his plan, and doubt the stability of some of his subsequent maxims. Parliamentary encouragement may be afforded, but a much less annual vote may be requisite than that which this author proposes. It seems necessary, we should say, in the first instance, to provide for augmenting the number of cultivators, by establishing new farms with cottages, labourers, &c. on different wastes in the kingdom; which may be effected by granting sums to the Board of Agriculture for that purpose. By this remark, we are not to be understood as recommending the indiscriminate and universal inclosure of wastes and commons. Some of these are not worth inclosing, and should remain in a state of waste; others, though small, are of essential use to the parishioners, who would suffer from their division and inclosure. There are, however, districts in the kingdom lying waste, which would furnish portions of good land, capable of being converted into valuable farms; and, as the population of the island is increased, and ought to be increasing, it may be wise to enlarge the quantity of good land under the plough, as well as to bring that already inclosed, and which will pay for improving, into a higher state of cultivation. To this measure Mr. Bell is averse. His maxim is;

'Instead of cultivating larger tracts of grounds by improving our wastes and commons, as many have advised, let us do the very reverse, and the best effects will ensue from it.

'We have seen, that our annual consumption of corn is 40,000,000 of quarters, and that 22,500,000 are obtained from 3,000,000 of acres, chiefly from the grounds on which it is sown having long been well cultivated; so that, if only 4,000,000 acres more of the same kind of ground were equally well improved, making the whole 7,000,000 of acres, the effect of it would be fully more than I have stated it: it would raise the average produce of corn upwards of 4,000,000 of quarters above our annual consumption, instead of being 2,000,000 less as it is at present: but, as a considerable time might elapse before the cultivation of these grounds would render them equally productive with the others, a large allowance must be made for this. With this view, I would say, that, as quickly as possible, the whole of our well cultivated lands should be increased to 10,000,000 of acres, and kept in a good productive condition; and were this to be done, and an additional quantity of land improved occasionally, according to the increase that might take place in our

population, we should not often, in future, be distressed with scarcity.

'Here it is proper to observe, that good husbandry not only tends to produce abundant crops in good seasons; but to prevent the influence of bad seasons, both on the quality and the quantity of corn;—a fact of much importance in agriculture. The effect of it, indeed, is such, that, even in our worst seasons, those lands that are fully cultivated usually bear abundant crops of good corn; while fields even of the same kind of soil, and in all other circumstances the same, if they are ill cultivated, not only produce an inferior kind of corn, but seldom more than a third part of their usual quantity. Hence, in seasons of general scarcity, those farmers who have their lands in good condition very commonly become rich, by having large quantities of corn for sale, when prices are high; while others, from their lands not being properly managed, and having little or none to bring to market, derive no benefit from the highest prices that are given.'

It is certainly a good principle generally to recommend the improvement of land already under cultivation, in preference to reclaiming wastes: but, in many instances, the reverse will be found true; and districts may be pointed out, now in a state of neglect, which would better repay the husbandman's labour, than much of those which he at present ploughs and sows. It is scarcely possible so to improve some tracks of poor soil as to make them very fertile; it is more prudent, therefore, to let these fall into waste, and to employ the national funds (if national funds are to be employed) on spots naturally more prolific. However, as it is a matter from which no evil and some good may arise, would it not be advisable to allow the Board of Agriculture to make the experiment of creating a few entirely new farms, in some chosen spots of the royal forests? This plan would not interfere with the amelioration of land already appropriated, and would furnish clear additions to the productive energies of the kingdom. The farms might answer the purpose of experiment, and their produce might go to the use of the Royal Navy.

Where Commons belong to parishes and public bodies, the inclosure of them should be directed on principles of public utility, and not of private rapacity. The privileges of the poor ought to be respected; and the advantages which they enjoy in one way, if taken from them, should be compensated in another. In short, without attempting specific details, we should rejoice to see the attention of the government seriously and perseveringly directed to the agricultural improvement of the country. That Minister who should make it his chief pride "to open paradise in the wild," to cover land now lying waste (which ought not to be so) with rich harvests, and "to make two blades of grass grow where only one grew before," would

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deserve a statue of gold. Then, from a full discussion of national improvement, by men most qualified to give an opinion on this subject, wise plans would result, and full power would be afforded for carrying them into the most complete effect. Then, the rage, which for a long time has prevailed for too extensive manufactures, might be lessened; and that effect which the health and virtue of the people seem to require, the united employments of manufacturer and agriculturist, might in some measure be accomplished. Mr. Bell's remarks on this head are so judicious, that we shall make no apology for placing them before the reader:

'Some, indeed, have imagined, that this ought not to be done, being of opinion that the two employments must be carried on to greater perfection when divided, than they can possibly be by one person. But while in one view this opinion is well founded, in others it certainly is not. A manufacturer would no doubt be unfit to manage a large farm; but it does not appear how in any way he could be hurt by having the charge of a garden, or even of an acre or two; which would commonly be all kept in grass for his cow, excepting such parts of it as he might wish to work with the spade for the production of potatoes and other articles usually obtained from gardens. Even this occasional occupation with the spade, however, would, in the opinion of many, prove injurious to manufacturers, from their being afraid that it would occupy time which otherwise might be employed with more benefit to himself and to the public. But men who argue in this manner, build their opinion on speculation, and not on practice and observation. They do not consider the nature of man, who must have some variety in his pursuits, otherwise he will be unhappy; and we all know how unproductive that labour must be, while those by whom it is carried on are discontented, or not satisfied with their situation. It appears indeed to be unreasonable, to insist on a weaver spending every instant of time at his loom, or a smith at his anvil: accordingly it is seldom or never done; for this class of men, when deprived of the more rational occupation of working and taking charge of a small portion of ground, for the benefit of their families, seldom fail to spend a considerable part of their time in the alehouse, and not more than a few days of every week at their work. Whereas, it is almost every where remarked, that this seldom happens with any of those manufacturers who have not hitherto been collected together, but working separately, and often at a distance from each other, frequently possess an acre or two of ground, in the management of which they not only derive amusement and happiness, but they and their children, while employed in this manner, become more robust and healthy, and imbibe much more virtuous principles, than are commonly met with among those manufacturers who do not enjoy this advantage.

'The influence of this is very remarkable in the difference which, in these circumstances takes place, between cotton manufacturers, who in general are collected together in great numbers, often to the extent of more than a thousand, and those who carry on the manufacture of

our national broad-cloth. These last almost every where work separately and unconnected with each other, and employ all the hours which they devote to relaxation and amusement, in the care of their gardens and other small portions of ground that they possess; to which they and their families become commonly so much attached, that they have been known to remain in them, small as their possessions commonly are, for many generations. Nor does this variety of occupation make them worse tradesmen, or induce them to work less, as some speculative men have supposed it would do, while, in various ways, it tends to make them more virtuous citizens. These manufacturers are every where noted for their industry, and for the quantity of cloth which they produce; and we all know that the article itself, which has long been considered as the staple commodity of our country, is the best of its kind that any where can be met with.

'Some manufactures necessarily require the united labours of many workmen; but this is not frequent, nor do we know of any that absolutely require such numbers to be employed in one body as to prevent the possibility of their being all supplied with small portions of ground. It may be for the interest of a few large money-proprietors, to collect manufacturers in great numbers together, and thus to enjoy the profits of their accumulated labour; but this being highly detrimental both to the morals and health of those whom they employ, and being thereby injurious to the whole nation, it is surely full time that to the very extensive length to which undertakings of this kind are frequently carried, some check or regulation should be applied.

'The most desirable, and perhaps the most effectual mode of doing this, would be, for the Board of Agriculture, when possessed of powers and funds sufficient for the purpose, to establish and support a plan for giving to every manufacturer, in all districts that admit of it, one, two, or more acres of ground, according to the richness of the soil, and other circumstances of his situation. The desire which universally prevails among the lower classes of people for this kind of possession, being every where great, were a plan of this kind to take place, a great proportion of manufacturers who are now collected in large bodies, would separate, and become more industrious, more useful, and better members of society, than they are ever likely to be while their present mode of life is pursued.'

Mr. B. suggests the propriety of assigning portions of land to every clergyman in the kingdom:

'In Scotland (he says) this forms part of the legal establishment of the clergy, and the benefit that ensues from it is very considerable. It not only affords to them and their families many of the necessaries and comforts of life, which otherwise they would often find it difficult to procure, such as an ample garden, pasture for two or three cows, as well as for a horse, but very commonly a sufficiency of bread-corn and potatoes; by which, with a moderate allowance in money, they are enabled to live in a state of independence and respectability seldom to be met with among the clergy of any other country.

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'This also enables them to prove more useful among their parishioners, than otherwise could be the case; and as the possession of a portion of land serves often to attract their attention to agriculture, we frequently find them giving good examples in farming in their various districts.

'In no other manner does it appear that the clergy of a country can be so easily and so well supported; and the quantity of land that it requires is by no means considerable. In rich soils, twelve or thirteen acres might be sufficient for all the purposes that I have mentioned; while, in others, twenty-five or thirty acres are necessary. If in Scotland, the average quantity were twenty acres, which, however, it is not, the amount for the whole kingdom would not greatly exceed fourteen thousand acres, as the number of parishes in country districts is not much above seven hundred; and if an allowance of the same extent were made to every curate and vicar doing the duty of country parishes in England and Wales, the whole would not require above 120,000 acres, as the number of country parishes in both does not appear to exceed six thousand.'

In the fourth Essay, *on Scarcity of Provisions and Dearth*, are some observations which well merit the attention of the public, as being calculated to shew the real cause of scarcity, and to rectify the erroneous prejudices of the community in dear times against farmers, who are considered, if not as creating, at least as aggravating the calamity. The author also illustrates the true policy which ought to be pursued by Government with respect to provisions. He is of opinion that rich farmers are a national blessing; and he thus resists the apprehension of their having too great an influence over the market:

'It does not appear that the opulence of farmers gives them the power of withholding their articles from markets, however well they might be inclined to do so. It is so much for the interest of farmers that their crops of corn, and every article of stock in which they deal, be abundant, that none who are rightly informed can doubt of their doing every thing in their power to accomplish what all of them must earnestly desire. Now, on the supposition of this being done, and that large quantities of corn and live stock are produced, in what manner can farmers dispose of them? Farmers, whether they are rich or poor, do with their produce, precisely what merchants do with their wine, tea, coffee, and sugar, as well as with every article in which they deal. They sell it as quickly as possible; and it is so much for their interest to do so, that the public has no real cause to be afraid of being injured by farmers acting with different views of this matter.

'When abundant crops are produced, farmers are obliged to dispose of them at low prices; for the value of corn, like that of every other article, must be chiefly regulated by the quantity in the market. In years of scarcity, therefore, they necessarily raise their prices, otherwise they would soon be reduced to extreme poverty; for al-

though farmers, as I have already observed, always gain most in years of abundance, their profit on corn is, even in the best seasons, so small, that were they not permitted to increase their prices when scarcity takes place, and when they have only small quantities to dispose of, in what manner is it possible that their business could be carried on? It seems, however, to be the desire and expectation of many, that in all seasons, farmers should sell their corn at nearly the same value, whatever the quantity may be! A desire so unreasonable, that it cannot easily be accounted for or explained.'

Mr. Bell is decided in reprobating all restrictions on dealers in provisions. To encourage abundance, he advises a very simple plan:

'Let every statute be repealed that has hitherto been continued against dealers in corn, and other provisions: let all who deal in them be protected, and permitted to purchase and sell in all situations and circumstances, and whenever they may think proper; and the business will be done. When this shall happen, and the period is not probably distant, it will soon become matter of surprise and wonder, that any of these pernicious statutes were continued till the nineteenth century. They will be considered as the more remarkable, from being kept in force by the people of Britain, who have long been convinced of the utility of freedom of trade in every other article; and hereafter will be spoken of in the same manner with all statutes that authorise persecution, where full liberty should be given.'

On the subject of the proper size of farms, this author asserts that 'it is for the interest of the public, greatly for the comfort of farmers, and very beneficial for the poor, that full encouragement be given to farms of considerable size;' and that all the labouring cottagers should be possessed of small portions of land for the use of their families. Large farms indeed produce quantities for the market; while small farms are most favourable to population.

A distinct section is employed in discussing the operation of Country-Banks; and it is maintained that 'they prove useful to agriculture, and thereby tend to lessen rather than to raise the prices of produce.' In many respects, Country-Banks afford an accommodation to Agriculturists; and, as they assist greatly in giving stability to our paper currency, they ought not to be abolished: but, as they unavoidably help to increase the quantity of the circulating medium, they must operate, together with the National Bank, in raising the nominal value of provisions and other articles.

We have already mentioned that Mr. Bell, among the means of preventing future scarcity, does not recommend an increase of the quantity of ploughed lands, and opposes the cultivation of wastes as an injurious measure; though, strange to say, he would have commons divided, because, till this is done, he asserts,

asserts, 'they cannot any way be occupied to advantage:' but if the welfare of the nation does not require them to be subjected to the operations of agriculture, why divide them? why expend any of the national capital on them? It is maintained that it is for the national interest to lessen the quantity of corn land, which is here said to be already three times more than it necessarily should be. We possess, according to the statement before us, 27,000,000 of acres of arable land; and the full cultivation of 10,000,000 is represented as adequate to provide more than sufficient for our consumption. Mr. Bell's opinion, in this respect, will be combated; at all events, it merits a full discussion.

The first two essays in this volume belong rather to the class of Political Arithmetic than to Agriculture; in them, Mr. B. treats of *the Taxation of Income, of the National Debt, of the Funds, and of the Sale of the Land Tax.* To an Income tax he is extremely partial; and he thinks that, if such a tax were instituted, it ought to include all incomes, from the largest down to those of 15l. per annum; though the assessments should not be on the same scale of proportion. There is truth in the following observation, that, 'by collecting the revenue of the kingdom in one article, making every person pay a certain proportion of his clear income, instead of taxing every article in common use, as is done at present, the whole might be managed with much less expence than is now paid for a single branch of it.' By experience, however, it has been found that the demand of the disclosure of income is so odious and irritating, and that opportunities of evasion are so numerous, that few persons wish for the revival of this tax in any shape. It is very difficult, also, to levy it with equality.—The amount of the National Income is reckoned at 243,000,000, which is probably much too high.—For instance; the whole amount of the income from land is taken at its utmost estimate, and to this is added the whole of the mortgage capital: now it is admitted by Mr. B., that a great proportion of men of landed property *are in debt*, and the amount of the interest paid on the sum total borrowed must be subtracted from their incomes. The amount of the interest on the mortgage capital must be taken from, not added to, the landed income.—Mr. Bell appears to be actuated by the purest motives: but we are surprised that he should labour to exhibit an exaggerated statement of our wealth; for what benefit can accrue from encouraging national vanity, or from inviting a minister into the dangerous paths of excessive taxation?

Mr. Bell's doctrine on the Funding System is that it will be the gulf of our national wealth and prosperity, as long as it

is permitted to exist; that, so far from our flourishing state having any dependence on the high price of the Funds, we shall thrive in proportion as their price is low; and that we ought to make every effort for the speedy liquidation of the National Debt. His opinion of the Act for the Sale of the Land-Tax may be collected from a short passage:

'Instead of calling upon the proprietors of land to purchase their land tax, or expecting others to do it, this tax ought, in equity, to be at once annihilated, and income from land be put upon the same footing with income from any other source. Were this to be done, there is reason to believe, that it would be productive of more public benefit than will ever probably arise from the plan which Government appears at present willing to promote for it.'

It can be the interest of none but proprietors to become purchasers.

Many sensible observations occur in this volume: but it is diffusely written; for which Mr. B. apologizes, like the parson for his long sermon, by saying that he had not time to make it shorter. The public may expect a continuation of this gentleman's agricultural remarks.

ART. XI. *An Appendix to the Guide to the Church* *: In which the Principles advanced in that Work are more fully maintained; in Answer to Objections brought against them by Sir Richard Hill, Bart., in his Letters addressed to the Author, under the Title of "An Apology for Brotherly Love."† By the Rev. Charles Daubeny, LL. B. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard, &c.

ART. XII. *Reformation-Truth restored:* Being a Reply to the Rev. Charles Daubeny's Appendix to his Guide to the Church. Demonstrating his own Inconsistency with himself; and his great Misrepresentation of some historic Facts. With a particular Vindication of the Pure, Reformed, Episcopal Church of England, from the Charges of Mr. Daubeny, and other doctrinal Dissenters of that Gentleman's Sect, who are fomenting Schisms and Divisions, and disseminating Errors, in the very Bosom of the Establishment. In a Series of Letters to Mr. Daubeny. By Sir Richard Hill, Bart., M. P. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

PERHAPS Sir Richard Hill is not far from the truth, when he conjectures that few excepting the Reviewers will peruse this unprofitable controversy. "*We have, alas! toiled more than one long night, and have caught nothing*;" we mean nothing new, nothing which throws any additional light on the subjects in

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* See M. Rev. N. S. Vol. xxviii. p. 234.

† Ibid. Vol. xxix. p. 94.

debate,

debate, or which leads to any decisive conclusion. It is rather amusing, however, to see with what assurance of success each combatant prepares to attack his adversary, and with what eagerness and mutual (gentlemanly) tauntings they hasten to measure lances with each other. Both Knights profess the warmest attachment to the same Lady, while each upbraids the other for deserting her. What can we do in this case? As umpires, must we let them fight on, and then divide the palm? The Clergyman accuses the Baronet of being a Dissenter from the Established Church with regard to Discipline; and the Baronet pronounces the Clergyman to be a Dissenter in point of Doctrine. Mr. Daubeny *unchurches* all societies of Christians who are not episcopally governed; and Sir Richard Hill will not allow those to be true Church of England Clergymen who do not preach up Calvinism. We cannot entirely agree with either of these gentlemen. The Baronet, in his account of Church Government, appears to have the advantage over the Clergyman, especially if the appeal be made to the evidence of Scripture, and to the practice of the primitive church: but, when he proceeds to discuss the doctrines of Grace, Free Will; &c. he loses his superiority, by endeavouring to uphold doctrines which are less in unison with the general tenor of the New Testament than those of Mr. Daubeny.

It is contended by Mr. D., in the first part of his Appendix, that 'Episcopal Government is necessary to the existence of a Christian Church;' whence it follows, as a necessary corollary, that the Church of Geneva, the Presbyterian Church of Scotland, and the Dissenting Congregations, are not true churches. To establish this position, an appeal is made to the history of the early ages of the Church, in order to prove that nothing was thought to be legally done without the authority of the Bishop; and that there existed among the primitive Christian Clergy three distinct orders, Bishops, Priests, and Deacons. Unfortunately, however, for his grand hypothesis, he is forced to confess that 'it may be somewhat difficult at this day to ascertain the precise meaning of the different titles of Bishop, Priest, and Deacon in every passage in which they occur.' By this concession, the basis of his fabric is completely subverted; for, if it appears (as it unquestionably does) that a Presbyter in the primitive Church had often the same order and power with the Bishop, his whole argument, by which he would turn such multitudes out of the Christian Church, falls to the ground. As this is a species of reasoning which we should not have expected in any scholar of the present day, and least of all in a minister of the Protestant Church, we must not suffer it to pass without farther observation.

Does

Does Mr. Daubeny need to be informed that the word επισκοπος, on which he lays such stress, is a civil term, employed by the Greek classic writers to signify a person who *alicui rei curandæ præfectus est*; and that it was adopted by the writers of the N. T. and the primitive Christians to express the office of overseership, or presidency, in the society of believers which was formed in any place for the purposes of piety, fellowship, and communion? Can Mr. D. be ignorant that the original sense of επισκοπος, in the age of the apostles, was not exactly commensurate with the modern signification of the word *Bishop*, by which it is generally translated? The chief ministers of every church, or congregation of Christians for social worship, were denominated επισκοποι, or *overseers*, as the word is translated in our version of the N. T., Acts xx. 28.; and the author of *the Inquiry into the Constitution, Discipline, &c. of the Primitive Church, which flourished within the first three hundred years after Christ*, observes, p. 54. that "what we generally render Bishops, Priests, and Deacons, would be more intelligible in our tongue, if we did express it by Rectors, Vicars, and Deacons; the former being the actual incumbents of a place, and the latter Curates or assistants, and so different in degree, but yet equal in order." Mr. D., with a weakness of argument which, for the credit of his understanding and liberality, we wish him to relinquish, urges the necessity of having an officer named *Bishop* in every society or convention of Christians, in order to constitute that society a Church; as if επισκοπος and *Bishop* were convertible terms, and the sense of the former could be expressed only by the latter. The fact is that the heads or rulers of every Christian society answer to the antient επισκοποι, whatever modern appellations they may assume; and that the Presbytery of Scotland, the Calvinists at Geneva, and all the societies of Separatists, are *as much* Christian Churches as the Church of Rome.

When Mr. D. makes the validity of ordination to rest on an uninterrupted succession of Bishops, we are disposed rather to smile at his credulity than to offer a serious reply. Where is the necessity of this succession stated, and how can it be proved? On this occasion, we shall spare our own remarks, and oppose to Mr. D.'s regular succession the remarks of Sir R. Hill:

"When I consider the perpetual disagreements and bickerings which subsisted in the first ages of the Church, and how often the different bishops were deposed, and others ordained in their stead, so that not unfrequently there were two, three, or more nominal bishops appointed over the same district; I say, when all this is duly considered, as well as the darkness of those times, and the dreadful confusion

fusion occasioned under the different persecutions; we shall certainly find no small difficulty in tracing up a regular succession of diocesan bishops from the present time to that of the apostles; though you inform us that you have seen a regular gradation of the bishops of London from the much esteemed character who now so worthily fills that see, up to the first establishment of Christianity in this nation; which, however, according to Mr. Pennant's History of London, must (I think) have been before the city itself existed. However, not to dispute this matter, I can also assure you that I myself have seen a list or *string* of popes in the Church of St. Mary Maggiore at Rome, beginning with St. Peter, and carried down to his late holiness, Pius the VIth, for whose portrait there is only one niche left; [a sad omen that he will be the last;] but fortunately, or unfortunately, poor Madam Pope Joan (whom Mr. D. believes to have been delivered of a bastard whilst she was walking in solemn procession) has no place among her brethren of the Tiara; by which means the succession is interrupted, and the infallibility of the papal chair liable to be disputed.'

Much as we lament divisions among Christians, and earnest as we are to promote union with rather than hasty separations from the Established Church, we cannot, for the sake of advancing any fancied unanimity, relinquish the great principle of religious liberty. Mr. D. evinces a commendable zeal in behalf of the Protestant Church of which he is a minister, and laments that congregations of Separatists have broken away from the Church of England: but he seems to forget that the Church of Rome is not less severe in its charge of schism against the Church of England; and that the only principle, which can be adduced in support of the Reformation and our secession from the Church of Rome, will justify those who allege conscience in excuse for farther separations*. A multitude of sects is a great evil, but it is preferable to spiritual tyranny erected on a pretended infallibility. We entirely agree with Mr. D. that 'The Kingdom of Christ is not of this world,—and the less the concerns of this world are mixed up with it the better:' for from such a mixture arises much of the arrogance and illiberality existing among Christians.

* Mr. D. (Vol. ii. p. 434.) offers the following curious argument: 'For, as the Church of Christ is but *one*, there cannot be two separate communions in it, without *schism*: and the schism lies on the side of that party which separates; for to separate from a Church established by public authority, which has nothing sinful in its communion, is both disobedience to the supreme authority in the State, and a *schism* from the true Church.'—How would a Papist turn this artillery against the Protestant Presbyter?

We

We shall not here state our opinion whether the XXXIX Articles be Arminian or Calvinistic: but we must say that Mr. D.'s view of Christian doctrine appears to us preferable to that which is given by Sir R. Hill in his reply. Mr. D. says,

'The notion of absolute unconditional salvation, independent of human conduct, exists no where but in the heads of Calvinists. God deals with man as a rational creature; and he will judge him as such. He sets life and death before him, and furnishes him with the means of grace, to enable him to make a proper choice. Should he act wisely, he will receive the reward of his promised inheritance, through the merits of a crucified Saviour; should the gifts of divine grace, by which he may be enabled to work out his salvation, be thrown away upon him; he will stand condemned for the neglect. To such a man, there remains only a fearful looking for of judgment. Such is the Gospel plan of salvation: I am much mistaken, if in the Bible you can find any other. *The favour of God is there described, as waiting on the actions of men*; and, from the plain letter of Scripture, it is to be proved, that man may be one day an heir of God, and the next day a child of wrath, according to his use or abuse of divine grace.'

This doctrine is not to be tolerated by Sir Richard; who maintains the sovereignty of the divine decrees, the *invincibility* of divine grace, and the impossibility of the final falling of the elect. He contends for 'a particular Providence, decreeing, planning, guiding every event, whether good or evil; and this, without the smallest impeachment of God's own moral attributes, or *even without his having any thing to do with the sin*, so far as the act itself is sinful, but as it makes way for the greatest good, in the manifestation of his own glory, and the display of his own infinite perfections.'—If, as he remarks, the command and the power go hand in hand, how can the evil actions of men be necessitated, and the Deity have nothing to do with the sin?

Sir Richard makes a distinction between *quenching* and extinguishing the Spirit; and he thinks that men may act *necessarily* and yet *freely*. To retort the accusation on some of our Divines, that they fished in the Lake of Geneva, he accuses his clerical opponent of fishing in the Tiber. Thus wit is blended with divinity; and if these controversialists do not *convince*, perhaps they have not failed in their attempts to *amuse* one another.

Some other publications on this subject will be found in our *Catalogue.*

ART.

ART. XIII. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, for the Year 1802. Part II. 4to. 17s. 6d. sewed. Nicol.*

ASTRONOMICAL *and* MATHEMATICAL PAPERS, &c.

Observations on the two lately discovered Celestial Bodies. By William Herschell, *LL. D. F. R. S.*

THE surprize of the scientific world on the discovery of two new planets has now subsided: but its curiosity must naturally be awakened by an account of the nature of these stars, from the pen of that astronomer who discovered the *Georgium Sidus* and the Satellites of Saturn. Such remarks are contained in the present paper; which is drawn up in the manner of a journal, in order that every circumstance, however minute, might be noticed in a case so important. Our concern is with results only; and the first result of Dr. H.'s observations is that the diameter of Ceres (Piazzi's Star) is 161.6 miles, and that of Pallas (Dr. Olber's Star) 110½ only. After the journal of the investigations by which the diameters of the new planets are determined, follow observations made with the view of ascertaining whether they had *comas* and satellites; and it appears that the new planets have the former but not the latter. The comas, much less than those which comets have, extend two or three diameters from the disk.

Beyond these points, Dr. H.'s paper seems to have but little interest for the curious inquirer. The remaining part of it is principally occupied with the discussion of this (at best) *idle* question, 'Are the new stars, planets or comets?' and, as if the word *planet* contained an inherent and necessary signification, the Doctor lays down six conditions to which a star must be subject, in order to be intitled to that appellation. What person, in any degree imbued with astronomical science, having learnt that these new stars agreed with Venus, Mars, Mercury, &c. in the great circumstance of revolving round the sun, would have hesitated one moment in calling them *planets*? The reasons which Dr. H. alleges, to prove that Pallas and Ceres are *not planets*, are not more philosophical, and they are much less amusing, than those by which Scrub proves the existence of a plot. "Ay, Sir, a plot, a horrid plot.—First, it must be a plot because there's a woman in't; secondly, it must be a plot because there's a priest in't; thirdly, it must be a plot because there's French gold in't; and fourthly, it must be a plot, because I *don't know what to make on't.*" (*Beaux Stratagem.*)

Having excluded the new stars from the rank of planets, Dr. H. more easily shews that they cannot be called *comets*:—but, in this age of nomenclatures, are the new stars to be without a name?

a name? By no means; Dr. H. gives them the name of *Asteroïds*; and, in order to know what an *Asteroïd* means, we are referred to a definition. Would it not have been more simple to have called them *Planets*? The peculiar circumstances by which they differ from the other planets might easily have been remembered without a *definition*; and an evil attached to Dr. H.'s definition is, that it does not exactly describe the nature of the two new stars.

We are decidedly adverse to this unnecessary invention of new names. The *journal* method of Dr. H.'s paper, also, we do not much approve: we cannot perceive its utility, and the cause of it is at least ambiguous: it might originate from indolence; and it might be suggested by a real and enlightened concern for the interests of science.—It is with reluctance that we animadvert on a philosopher, who has so many and such strong claims on our respect.

A Method of examining Refractive and Dispersive Powers, by Prismatic Reflection. By William Hyde Wollaston, *M. D. F.R.S.*—The very ingenious method, a description of which forms the subject of this paper, was suggested to the author, according to his own declaration, by a consideration of Newton's prismatic eye-glass; the principle of which depends on the reflection of light at the inner surface of a dense refracting medium. The principle of Dr. W.'s method is nearly as follows: If a ray pass out of one medium into a rarer; then, by increasing the angle of incidence in the denser medium to a certain extent, the ray is at length reflected, and the object ceases to be seen by refraction. Now the angle of incidence, at which this reflection takes place, depends on the difference of the densities of the mediums. Take, then, a prism, of which the refracting power is known, and the refracting power of a rarer medium may be ascertained by viewing in it an object through the prism, just at the point where the visual ray is about to be reflected, or no longer refracted.—Setting out on this foundation, Dr. W. has constructed a very simple instrument; which, used with a square prism, determines at once the refractive power of the medium placed in contact with the prism. With a diagram, the construction of the instrument may be very easily understood.

The mode by which Dr. W. examines the refractive powers of mediums and substances, besides its facility, has advantages above the ordinary methods. It has enabled him to determine the refractive powers of perfectly opaque substances, and those of mediums which have a variable density. He suggests that it may be useful in examining the purity of essential oils; and he

shews that the method for ascertaining refractive powers may be commodiously employed in determining the dispersion of light caused by different bodies.

The reasonings and contrivances of Dr. W., designed to ascertain the refractive and dispersive powers of substances, have afforded us much pleasure and instruction: but a passage towards the latter end of his paper excited our surprize. He affirms that a beam of white light is separable by refraction into *four* colours: the fact is remarkable, and for several reasons highly interesting: yet the following extract contains almost the entire proof of it that the author has given:

'I cannot conclude these observations on dispersion, without remarking that the colours into which a beam of white light is separable by refraction, appear to me to be neither 7, as they usually are seen in the rainbow, nor reducible by any means (that I can find) to 3, as some persons have conceived; but that, by employing a very narrow pencil of light, 4 primary divisions of the prismatic spectrum may be seen, with a degree of distinctness that, I believe, has not been described nor observed before.

'If a beam of day-light be admitted into a dark room by a crevice $\frac{1}{20}$ of an inch broad, and received by the eye at the distance of 10 or 12 feet, through a prism of flint glass, *free from veins*, held near the eye, the beam is seen to be separated into the four following colours only, red, yellowish green, blue, and violet.'—

'The position of the prism in which the colours are most clearly divided, is when the incident light makes about equal angles with two of its sides. I then found that the spaces AB, BC, CD, DE, occupied by them, were nearly as the numbers 16, 23, 36, 25.

'Since the proportions of these colours to each other have been supposed by Dr. Blair to vary according to the medium by which they are produced, I have compared with this appearance, the coloured images caused by prismatic vessels containing substances supposed by him to differ most in this respect, such as strong but colourless nitric acid, rectified oil of turpentine, very pale oil of sassafras, and Canada balsam, also nearly colourless. With each of these, I have found the same arrangement of these 4 colours, and in similar positions of the prisms, as nearly as I could judge, the same proportions of them.'

We do not think that the mere result of this experiment satisfactorily establishes the fact just stated.

On the Oblique Refraction of Iceland Crystal. *By* William Hyde Wollaston, *M.D. F.R.S.*—According to the hypothesis of Huygens, light proceeding from a luminous centre is propagated by vibrations of an highly elastic fluid. In common cases, the incipient undulations are supposed to be spherical: but in the Iceland crystal, light appeared to that philosopher

to

to proceed as if the undulations were portions of an oblate spheroid, of which the axis is parallel to the short diagonal of an equilateral piece of the crystal, and its centre the point of incidence of the ray.

From the spheroïdical form of the undulations, Huygens deduced the obliquity of refraction; and, whereas in other cases the ratio of the sine of incidence to the sine of refraction (or ordinate of the spherical undulation) is given, so in the Iceland crystal, he affirms the ratio to be given between the sine of incidence and ordinate of refraction, in any one section of the spheroïdical undulation.

The method described in Dr. Wollaston's former paper, of determining the refractive powers of different substances, enabled him to ascertain the truth of Huygens' hypothesis, as far as the results from it corresponded with observation. The contents of this second essay agree throughout with the theory of Huygens; and the author says that they are the more worthy of dependence, because nearly all the experiments were made previously to an acquaintance with the theory, which in a great degree they now confirm. These two excellent memoirs will be read with interest by the philosophical inquirer.

An Account of some Cases of the Production of Colours, not hitherto described. By Thomas Young, *M.D. F.R.S.*—As this paper is short, those persons who are interested in the subject will do well to read it; and if they find nothing satisfactory in it, the time lost will not be very important. For ourselves, we do not apprehend with sufficient distinctness the phænomena described, and their explanation according to the undulatory theory, so as to make them the subject of critical examination. We wish that Dr. Young would have some regard to us, who have not abundance of leisure time, and would write more clearly: for we cannot linger over books, and perplex our brains, to divine and conjecture the probable meaning of authors.

Quelques Remarques sur la Chaleur, et sur l'Action des Corps qui l'interceptent. *Par* P. Prevost, *Professeur de Philosophie à Genève, &c. Communicated by* Thomas Young, *M.D.*—The first part of this paper is principally confined to the examination of the method by which Dr. Herschell estimates the intercepting power of different mediums, when heat is transmitted through them. By that mode*, if two thermometers at 67° were raised in the space of 5 minutes, the one by the immediate action of the rays of heat to 73°, the other by the action

* See Dr. Herschell's Experiments, Phil. Trans. 1800.

of

of like rays transmitted through a medium to $71\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, then the intercepting power of the medium is

$$\frac{(73-67)-(71\frac{1}{2}-67)}{73-67} \text{ or } \frac{6-4.5}{6} \text{ or } \frac{1.5}{6} \text{ or } .25$$

Now, if this method were a just one, the same result ought to arise if we estimated the intercepting power by observing the heights of the thermometers at the end of 4, or 3, or 2, or at the end of 6, 7 or 8, &c. minutes: but this is not the case; for, according to Dr. Herschell's own experiments, if we take four minutes, the intercepting power is .28; and if 3 minutes, the intercepting power is .314. Since the intercepting power, estimated by Dr. H.'s principle from these experiments, decreases the longer the thermometers are exposed, what can be the just means of estimating it? For why should we stop at 5 minutes, rather than at 4, or 15, or 100?

In order to examine Dr. H.'s method farther, M. Prevost takes the law laid down from experiments by MM. Kraft and Richmann; according to which, a body in a medium of constant temperature is heated, or cools, in such a manner that the differences between its heat and that of the medium are in geometric progression, while the times are in arithmetical. As a consequence of this law, M. Prevost observes that, if two bodies of the same temperature are plunged into two media, of constant but different temperatures, the increases of heat in equal times will not, generally, be proportional to the temperature of those media; and therefore, the two thermometers (stated in Dr. H.'s experiments) by the ratio of their movements in 5 minutes, will not indicate the ratio of the whole heat, to the heat transmitted through the interposed lamina.

Professor Prevost thinks that the best means of ascertaining the intercepting power of media would be by observing the instantaneous effect, and not the effect after a given time.—In page 432, the phænomenon of a metallic speculum, reflecting rays of heat much more abundantly than a similar glass speculum coated at its hinder surface, is said to have been observed and explained by M. Pictet: M. Scheele, however, unless we greatly mistake, was the first person who observed this phænomenon.

Again, a piece of glass interposed between the fire and face intercepts, until it becomes *saturated*, the rays of caloric: and the observation of this fact, M. Prevost ought, in our opinion, to have acknowleged to be due to Professor Robison of Edinburgh.

Again, the merit of the experiment of *reflecting cold* from a speculum is given to M. Pictet; whereas, as we have shewn,

(M. R. vol. xxxvi. N.S. p. 420.) the experiment was tried, nearly 140 years ago, by the Academy del Cimento.

The memoir of M. Prevost certainly deserves notice; yet he has rather shewn that Dr. H.'s method of measuring the intercepting power of substances is fallible, than that this or that method ought to be adopted. The learned Professor might also have stated his opinions in fewer words.

On the Rectification of the Conic Sections.—By the Rev. John Hellins, *B.D. F.R.S. Part* 1. *Of the Rectification of the Hyperbola; containing several new Series for that Purpose: together with the Methods of computing the constant Quantities by which the ascending Series differ from the descending ones.*—The subject of this paper was first offered to the author's consideration in the year 1770. A problem suggested in a periodical work required the rectification of a considerable portion of the equilateral hyperbola; and Mr. Hellins exhibited the rectification, an early blossom of his ingenuity. During a period of nearly thirty years, he has resumed the subject at different times; and, in the maturity of his judgment, he now instructs the present race of Geometricians how to compute the length of any portion of a conic hyperbola.

We wish not to speak in that flippant tone, by which mathematical inquiries of all kinds are condemned: but, in the present instance, Mr. Hellins has employed much time innocently perhaps to himself, yet uselessly to science. He has exhibited nothing curious in a speculative point of view, nor has he abridged the labour of actual computation. We are surprized that he should not be aware, (which he seems not to be,) that the rectification of the hyperbola * depends on that of the ellipse, or that every arc of an hyperbola may immediately be rectified by two arcs of an ellipse; so that the whole difficulty devolves on the rectification of an ellipse. This latter problem, however, is not now regarded as difficult; the common series for the rectification of an ellipse converges very fast when the excentricity is small; and, by means of the arcs of two ellipses very little excentric, we can determine the arc of any ellipse whatever; as also by means of the arcs of two ellipses very excentrical. These remarkable properties of the ellipse and hyperbola are not only highly gratifying to

* If b be an arc of an hyperbola, and θ its amplitude, then $b = \int \frac{b^2\,\theta}{\cos.\theta^2 \sqrt{1 - c^2 . \sin.^2\theta}}$; and if EE' be two elliptic arcs $b = \text{tang.}\,\theta \sqrt{1 - c^2 . \sin.^2\theta} + 2c . \sin.\theta + E - 2(1+c)\,E'$.

the

the merely speculative inquirer, but are of great assistance in computation.

Mr. Hellins seems to have heard something of these properties; Landen, he says, wrote a *very ingenious paper* on elliptic and hyperbolic arches; and he afterward adds that he has heard, that '*some improvement* in the rectification of the ellipsis and hyperbola had been produced, and some of the same theorems discovered, by a *learned Italian* many years before Mr. Landen's Mathematical memoirs were published.' We suppose that Mr. H. alludes to Fagnani; and he might also have mentioned a *learned Frenchman*, M. Legendre. In our opinion, before Mr. H. had offered his speculations to the public, respect to that public should have induced him to have consulted all that had been written on the same subject. Had he done this, the pages of the present volume of the Transactions would probably not have been occupied with a paper in which, as we have already observed, neither a curious speculative truth is exhibited, nor the business of computation materially facilitated.

The method of Mr. Hellins chiefly consists in expanding the expression $n\sqrt{(1+c^2x^2)}\cdot(1+x^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, different ways, and in a few simple transformations.

Catalogue of 500 *new Nebulæ, nebulous Stars, planetary Nebulæ, and Clusters of Stars; with Remarks on the Construction of the Heavens. By* William Herschell, *LL.D. F.R.S.*—This learned observer of the heavens has found out many new appearances, so varying from each other, that they require to be classed differently; and if they are classed differently, it may perhaps be said that it is proper to assign them distinct names. To the mere reader and admirer of Dr. H.'s discoveries, however, these names are of no assistance, since they do not point out adequately the nature of the thing designated; and, for *information*, he must attend to the description of *nebulous stars, stellar nebulæ*, &c. that is, to the description of certain appearances.

The present paper, notwithstanding some objections that may be urged against it, is well worthy of notice. There is oftentimes much to admire in Dr. H.'s discoveries, and there is always something that excites a smile in his phraseology.

Mineralogy, Anatomy, &c.

Description of the Corundum Stone, and its Varieties, commonly known by the Names of Oriental Ruby, Sapphire, &c.; with Observations on some Mineral Substances. By the Count de Bournon, *F.R.S.*—In a former memoir on the same subject*, the author

* See Rev. Vol. xxviii. N. S. p. 267.

gave it as his opinion, that the corundum stone was of the same nature with those stones or gems, which have been hitherto distinguished by the name of oriental.—Since the period at which that paper was presented to the Royal Society, the Count has had various opportunities of confirming the accuracy of this opinion; and he now concludes with confidence, as well from his own numerous observations as from the chemical analysis of Mr. Chenevix, undertaken at his request, (and detailed in a subsequent paper of the present volume,) that corundum ought to be placed among those gems or stones, known by the names of sapphire, oriental ruby, oriental hyacinth, &c.

The Count refers corundums to two divisions; the perfect, which comprises the substances distinguished by the names of sapphire, ruby, &c. and the imperfect, which is confined to that to which the general appellation of corundum has been applied.

'Under one of these appearances, in which it is known by the name of corundum, this substance presents itself either in fragments, or in crystals of a pretty large size; sometimes, indeed, of a very considerable one. The surface of these crystals is generally dull and rough; their texture, which is very much lamellated, is shown to be so by their fracture, which is obtained without much difficulty, as the adherence of their crystalline laminæ to each other is not very strong, and is easily overcome; and the crystal or fragment may always be brought to the rhomboid, its primitive form. Their colour, which is most commonly rather dull, is a whitish, greenish, and sometimes yellowish gray. Specimens of a purplish red, or of a blue colour, have always been extremely rare.'—

'Under the other appearance, (in which this substance is known by the names of sapphire, ruby, &c.) it offers itself, on the contrary, in crystals which are generally of a very small size, and have a smooth and brilliant surface. Their transparency is often very great; and it seldom happens that they are not semi-transparent, in a greater or less degree. They are more difficult to break in the direction of their crystalline laminæ; and this difficulty increases, in proportion to their purity and their brilliancy. Their colours are much more beautiful, more variegated, and more lively.'

The author then describes with great minuteness, and at considerable length, the external characters of the different varieties of oriental gems. Four plates are annexed, for the purpose of illustrating the various forms of their crystals.

Analysis of Corundum, and of some of the Substances which accompany it; with Observations on the Affinities which the Earths have been supposed to have for each other in the humid Way. By Richard Chenevix, *Esq. F.R.S. and M.R.I.A.*—

'The

'The general results, from all the different kinds of corundum, were as follows.

Blue perfect Corundum, or Sapphire.	
Silica	5,25
Alumina	92
Iron	1
Loss	1,75
	100,00.

Imperfect Corundum from the Carnatic.	
Silica	5
Alumina	91
Iron	1,5
Loss	2,5
	100,0.

Red perfect Corundum, or Ruby.	
Silica	7
Alumina	90
Iron	1,2
Loss	1,8
	100,0.

Imperfect Corundum from Malabar.	
Silica	7
Alumina	86,51
Iron	4
Loss	2,5
	100,0.

Imperfect Corundum from China.	
Silica	5,25
Alumina	86,50
Iron	6,50
Loss	1,75
	100,00.

Imperfect Corundum from Ava.	
Silica	6,5
Alumina	87,0
Iron	4,5
Loss	2,0
	100,0.

The chief difference between these results, and the proportions established by M. Klaproth, is in the Silica, of which that chemist was unable to detect any portion in the specimens examined by him.

In a subsequent part of his paper, the author gives the analysis of the matrix of corundum from the peninsula of India, and of the different substances contained in this matrix, individually;—and he concludes with some observations and experiments on the affinities which the earths have been supposed to have for each other, in the humid way. The affinity of alumina for magnesia, lime, and silica, he noticed some time ago in the *Annales de Chimie*; and he is still of the same opinion with regard to this subject: but he thinks himself justified, by a careful repetition of the experiments, to infer that M. Guyton was misled by the impurity of his re-agents, in his ideas on the affinities exercised among other earths, and which, if they existed, would have so materially affected the application of Chemistry to Mineralogy.

'*Description of the Anatomy of the Ornithorhynchus Hystrix.* By Everard Home, *Esq. F.R.S.*—This animal is considered by the author as approaching nearer, in the scale of existence, to a perfect quadruped, than the *Ornithorhynchus paradoxus*, which

was described in the first part of this volume *. The subject, from which the present description was taken, was sent from New South Wales preserved in spirits, and was supposed, from the appearances of its epiphyses, to have arrived nearly at its full growth. It is a male, and is classified by Dr. Shaw in his Zoology under the name of *Myrmecophaga aculeata*.

In shape and size, the *hystrix* considerably resembles the *paradoxus*: but, instead of having the same integuments as were noticed in the description of the latter, it is distinguished by a covering of short coarse hair; extending over a large part of its body, and intermixed with quills like those of the porcupine, which are disposed in rows, and are from one to two inches and a half in length.

In the *paradoxus*, besides the teeth which are placed in the jaw at the posterior part of the mouth, there are two pointed teeth growing from the tongue: while, in the *hystrix*, the teeth are intirely confined to the tongue and palate.

'On the posterior part of the tongue, which is thicker and broader than the rest, there is a space, one inch in length and $\frac{1}{4}$ broad, covered with a strong cuticle, and having about 20 small teeth, blunt at their ends, projecting about $\frac{1}{16}$ of an inch; there are also several others, less prominent. On that part of the palate immediately opposite, there are seven transverse rows of very slender horny teeth, with their points directed backwards; each row looks somewhat like a small-toothed comb, laid flat upon the palate.'

The internal parts of this animal very nearly resemble those of the *paradoxus*: but the stomach is larger, is lined with a cuticle, and, towards the pylorus, has a considerable number of horny papillæ, of $\frac{1}{16}$ of an inch in length, on its inner surface. Mr. Home found some fine white sand in the intestines; whence he supposes that a quantity of that substance is always swallowed with the food, and that the stomach is therefore sufficiently large to contain both the food and the extraneous matter accompanying it.

Mr. H. gives a summary of the peculiarities of the *Ornithorhynchus*, as a tribe of animals; and then he adds:

'These characters distinguish the Ornithorhynchus, in a very remarkable manner, from all other quadrupeds, giving this new tribe a resemblance in some respects to birds, in others to the Amphibia; so that it may be considered as an intermediate link between the classes Mammalia, Aves, and Amphibia; and, although the great difference that exists between it and the Myrmecophaga, the nearest genus we are at present acquainted with, shows that the nicer gradations towards the more perfect quadrupeds are not at present known,

* See Rev. Vol. xxxix. N. S. p. 403.

the

the facts which have been stated may induce others to prosecute the inquiry, and render that part of the chain more complete.

'Between it and the bird, no link of importance seems to be wanting.'

The author adduces the drake as an instance of the great affinity that exists between the male organs of the *Ornithorhynchus*, and those of birds.—This and the other parts of his subject are illustrated with plates.

On the Composition of Emery. By Smithson Tennant, *Esq. F.R.S.*—Emery has generally been regarded by mineralogists as an ore of iron: but the present author is disposed to consider the small quantity of this metal, which it contains, as an impurity, and not a necessary constituent. From the result of his experiments, it appears that, with the exception of including rather more iron, it is very similar in nature and composition to the diamond spar. When the emery was reduced to a coarse powder, and the principal part of the iron abstracted from it, by means of the magnet, one hundred parts of the remainder were found to contain as follow:

Argillaceous Earths	80 parts,
Silex	3
Iron	4
Undissolved	3
	90

The plan adopted in this analysis was nearly similar to that which was employed by M. Klaproth, in his examination of the diamond spar; and the proportion of the ingredients in both these substances was sufficiently near to convince the author that they are essentially the same. M. Klaproth obtained from 100 parts of the Chinese Corundum, after it was separated from the particles attracted by the magnet,

Argillaceous Earths	84 parts.
Silex	6,5
Iron	7,5
	98

The difference between the loss of weight in the analysis of the emery, and that of the diamond spar or corundum, is attributed by the author to the latter having been conducted with more care than the former.

The usual lists and index terminate this volume.

Art. XIV. *The New Cyclopædia; or Universal Dictionary of Arts and Sciences:* Formed upon a more enlarged Plan of Arrangement than the Dictionary of Mr. Chambers; comprehending the various Articles of that Work, with Additions and Improvements; together with the New Subjects of Biography, Geography, and History; and adapted to the present State of Literature and Science. By Abraham Rees, D.D. F.R.S., Editor of the last Edition of Mr. Chambers's Dictionary. With the Assistance of eminent professional Gentlemen. Illustrated with new Plates, including Maps, engraved for the Work by some of the most distinguished Artists. 4to. Vols. I. and II. in two Parts each. Price 18s. each Part in Boards. Longman and Co. &c. &c. 1802.

THE public have for many years testified their approbation of the Dictionary of Arts and Sciences prepared by Mr. Chambers; and new editions of it have still received the most liberal sanction. Like all human productions, however, imperfections were discernible in it; and even the progress of knowlege must continually tend to produce deficiencies in such compilations. The last edition of Chambers, from the pen of the learned and industrious Dr. Rees, appeared in 1786, and was mentioned in our Reviews for November and December in that year. From the consideration, however, of those circumstances, and the operation of those causes, which we have just mentioned, another renovation of this work, subject to some alterations and embracing various additions, has now become expedient; and Dr. Rees has again stepped forth in the cause of science, and in the service of the literary world, with a continued zeal, and even with an augmentation of effort, which at his period of life are the more commendable because they are the more uncommon.

In this early stage of the undertaking, it is impossible for us to deliver any decisive opinion on the merits of its execution; and indeed a publication of such extent and magnitude may be said almost to mock the powers of Reviewers, and the nature of a Review, even while its importance may be thought peculiarly to demand their examination and their judgment. For the present, we shall chiefly content ourselves with stating, from the Preface, the editor's account of the design which has been adopted, and the plan which is proposed to be followed; adding the names of those gentlemen who have avowed themselves as coadjutors with Dr. Rees in his laborious office, two or three specimens of the new articles, and a few detached remarks.

We are informed that, the Proprietors of Chambers's Cyclopædia having again directed their attention to that work, with a view to the present state of science,

'It was their first intention to have merely published another edition, with such supplementary corrections and additions as might be thought necessary; and they were the more desirous of adopting this plan, because they would thus have had an opportunity of gratifying the purchasers of the former edition with the modern improvements. But after the maturest deliberation, they are convinced that a plan of this kind would be altogether impracticable. The alterations and additions are so numerous, that it would be impossible to introduce them in a SUPPLEMENT with any degree of advantage to the original work, to the Public, or to themselves. They have therefore determined to publish a NEW WORK, and to avail themselves of the opportunity that is thus afforded them, of reducing the *Folio* to the *Quarto* size, which is much more commodious for general use; of making some considerable alterations in the general plan of the work; of inserting a variety of new subjects, which no former edition of Mr. CHAMBERS's CYCLOPÆDIA had comprehended; and of annexing to the whole, *Maps* and various other Plates, designed and executed by the best Artists.

'In forming the general plan of this work, the Editor, availing himself of considerable experience in this department of literary labour, and of the opinion of many judicious friends, has determined to adopt that, which, after much reflection on his own part, and the advice of competent judges, seems best adapted to the design of communicating knowledge by means of a Dictionary. Whatever may be the advantage resulting from separate Dictionaries appropriate to each particular Science, which is the plan of the FRENCH ENCYCLOPEDIE, or from distinct Treatises introduced in a Dictionary of one Alphabet, which is the plan that has been adopted by other modern compilers of works of this kind, the inconvenience and perplexity that attend the multiplication of Alphabets, whether they occur in different seriesses of Volumes, or in the form of an Index at the close of each Treatise, will furnish an objection against this mode of arrangement, which it will not be easy to obviate. In a work of such magnitude as the French Dictionary, consisting already of above an Hundred Volumes, and of undetermined extent, the best Treatises that have been written, or that may be written, on each subject, may be introduced; and the work itself may be a complete Library, and supersede the necessity of recurring to any other. But in a publication of limited compass, such as booksellers may undertake, and the general class of readers purchase, it is hardly possible to combine separate articles, sufficiently instructive, with treatises equally comprehensive and complete. To those who usually consult Dictionaries for information, this plan, we are persuaded, is by no means the most eligible. If they wish to extend their knowledge beyond the limits to which a Dictionary must necessarily restrict it, they will recur to appropriate treatises for the purpose; and the Dictionary should furnish them with the necessary references. A Dictionary is intended for communicating knowledge in an easy and expeditious manner; and it is desirable, that the several articles should be so full and comprehensive, as to afford sufficient instruction on the subjects

subject to which they relate, without the necessity of recurring to another Dictionary, or to an Index, for further information.'—

'In this NEW CYCLOPÆDIA, it is proposed to give, under each distinct head of Science, an historical account of its rise, progress, and present state, concisely and yet as comprehensively as our limits and our sources of information will allow; to specify the subjects which such Sciences include; to refer to those articles in which the discussion of them occurs; and to point out such publications as afford fuller information. References of this kind will be introduced under each separate article, wherever they shall be thought necessary and useful: and thus the reader will be able to judge concerning the authorities upon which the compilers of the several articles depend; and if he should have opportunity or inclination, he may recur to them for himself.

'Whilst the Gentlemen concerned in this work will avail themselves of the assistance which other similar Dictionaries afford them, they will not content themselves with mere transcripts; they will resort as much as possible to original writers; and by the citations which they subjoin to the several articles, the Public will judge of the extent of their research, and of the industry and labour which they have bestowed on this compilation. In their account of the Arts and Manufactures, they will consult the artisans and manufacturers themselves, and derive from them every kind of information that is likely to conduce to the credit and utility of the work.'—

'Besides the subjects which the last edition of Mr. CHAMBERS's CYCLOPÆDIA comprehends, the account of which will be abridged or amplified, corrected and amended, and mostly re-written, as may be found necessary, and to which a variety of new articles of a similar kind will be added, this Dictionary will include ancient and modern Geography, illustrated by new Maps, Biography, and Sketches of ancient and modern History.'

It is rather a peculiar feature of this Dictionary, that the names of so many contributors to it are given to the world: but it is a communication which must be acceptable, because the public are thus enabled to judge of the probable ability with which the design will be executed; these Gentlemen being already known by their talents in the different provinces in which they here act, and their reputation standing pledged for the due performance of their present engagement, as well as for the principles advanced in it. A recent advertisement in the public papers thus states the names and departments of the principal of them:

'AGRICULTURE.—R. W. Dickson, M.D.

'ANATOMY (*Human*).—John Abernethy, F. R. S., Assistant Surgeon of St. Bartholomew's Hospital, &c.

'ANATOMY (*Comparative*).—Mr. James Macartney, Lecturer upon Comparative Anatomy and Physiology at St. Bartholomew's Hospital, &c.

'ANNUITIES,

' Annuities, Survivorship, &c.—William Morgan, F.R.S.
' Antiquities.—Mr. Henry Ellis, of St. John's College, Oxford.
' Architecture.—William Territt, LL.D.; John Flaxman, R.A.; and Mr. Webster.
' British Topography.—Mr. John Britton.
' Bleaching, Dying, Calico Printing, &c.—Mr. Charles Taylor, and Mr. J. Thomson.
' Botany and Vegetable Materia Medica.—William Woodville, M.D. F.L.S.
' Carpentry, &c.—Mr. Peter Nicholson.
' Chemistry and Mineralogy.—Mr. Arthur Aikin.
' English History.—Sharon Turner, F.S.A.
' Engraving.—Mr. Wilson Lowry, and Mr. Thomas Milton.
' Heraldry.—George Naylor, F.S.A., York Herald.
' Medicine.—Richard Pearson, M.D. F.S.A.
' Materia Medica.—Mr. C. R. Aikin.
' Midwifery.—R. Bland, M.D. A.S.S.
' Music.—Charles Burney, Mus. D., F.R.S.
' Painting.—Henry Fuseli, R.A. Professor of Painting.
' Sculpture and Statuary.—John Flaxman, R.A., Sculptor to the King.
' Surgery.—William Blair, A.M. F.M.S.
' Veterinary Art.—Bracy Clark, F.L.S., Veterinary Surgeon.
' Zoology, Conchology, &c.—E. Donovan, F.L.S.'

We may now extract a few of the articles, to exemplify the manner of writing and the extent of discussion; and we shall first quote the article *Acre*, as imparting much useful information in addition to the former statement under this head:

' Acre denotes a quantity of land, containing four square Roods, or 160 square Poles or Perches. The word, perhaps, is formed from the Saxon *acere*, or German *acker*, field, or the Latin *ager*. Salmasius derives it from *acra*, used for *acæna*, a land-measure among the Ancients, containing 10 feet. The term acre formerly meant any open ground or field, as Castle-acre, West-acre, and not a determinate quantity of land.

' By the custom of countries, the perch differs in quantity, and consequently the acre of land: it is commonly 16½ feet; but in Staffordshire it is 24 feet; in other counties 28 feet; and in some parts of England 18, 21 feet. According to the statute 34 Hen. VIII. concerning the sowing of flax, it is declared, that 160 perches, i. e. 16 in length, and 10 in breadth, or in that proportion, make an acre; and the ordinance for measuring land, 35 Edw. I. agrees with this account. And therefore, as the statute length of a pole is 5½ yards, or 16½ feet, the acre will contain 4840 square yards, or 43,560 square feet. Moreover, as the chain, used in measuring land, is four poles or 22 yards in length, the square chain will be 484 yards, and the acre will be 10 square chains. And a mile being 1760 yards, or 80 chains in length, the square mile will be $1760 \times 1760 = 3,097,600$ square yards, and contain $80 \times 80 = 6400$ square chains, or 640 acres.

Some old farmers distinguish between seed acres and statute acres; the former being a vague measure, determined by the proportion of seed used in sowing it, and therefore depending on the fertility or barrenness of the soil.

'The Scots acre contains 4 Scots roods, and bears proportion to that of the English by statute, as 100,000 to 78,694, regard being had to the difference betwixt the Scots and English foot. One square rood is 40 square falls; one square fall, 36 square ells; one square ell, 9 square feet, and 73 square inches; and a square foot, 144 square inches. The Scots acre is also divided into ten square chains; the measuring chain being 24 ells in length, and consisting of 100 links, each link 8,928 inches; and each square chain will contain 10,000 square links. The English statute acre is about 3 roods and 6 falls, standard measure of Scotland.

'The French acre, *arpent*, is different in various provinces; the acre of Paris contains 100 square perches, the perch being 18 feet, or 3 toises; but in some places the perch is 20 feet, and in others 22. Allowing the proportion of the English square foot to be to that of the French, as 1000 to 1165, the acre of 100 square perches, at 18 feet each, will be 32,400 French square feet, or about 36,774 English square feet; and, the perch being 22 feet, the acre will be 48,400 French square feet, or about 54,934 English square feet; and the English acre being 43,560 square feet, it will be very easy to estimate the proportion of the one to the other. The Strasburg acre is about half an English acre. The Welsh acre contains commonly two English ones. The Irish acre is equal to 1 acre, 2 roods, 19 perches $\frac{32}{121}$, English.

'Houghton gives a table of the number of acres to a house in each county of South Britain, which is found to vary in the English counties from 3½ acres, the proportion in Middlesex, and 17½ in Surry, to 49 acres in Southampton; in the Welsh counties, from 51 acres, as it is found in Flintshire, to 193, as in Merionethshire.

'Dr. Grew attempts to ascertain the number of acres in England; which, according to him, amounts to 46 millions and 80,000. Phil. Trans. N° 330, or Abr. vol. iv. p. 450. Sir William Petty reckons but 28 millions; others 29 millions. And by an account of the number of acres in each county, supposed to be taken from some old registers, the number of acres in England amounted only to 39½ millions. Others estimate the number of acres in England and Wales at about 46,916,000; and in Scotland 26,000,000; whilst others again assert, that England and Wales contain no more than 38,500,000 acres; and that Scotland with its adjacent islands, contains about 2.1 millions of acres. Allowing with Zimmermann, (Political Survey, p. 192.) that England and Wales contain 54,112 square miles, and Scotland 25,600 square miles; the number of acres in the former will be 34,631,680, and in the latter 16,384,000. Ireland, comprehending 21,216 square miles, will contain 13,578,240 acres.

'The United Provinces are said to contain 4,382,000 acres, but reckoning, with Zimmermann (Political Survey, p. 164.) the area 10,000 square miles, the number of acres will be 6,400,000; and the province of Holland is estimated at one million of acres, or according

to the same writer, 1,280,000 acres: and they were thought formerly to contain 2,400,000 persons, but according to a public account given in 1785, 2,758,632 persons. If England were as well peopled in proportion, it is said that it would contain 46 millions of inhabitants, *i. e.* about seven or eight times as many as it now contains.

'The area of France, according to the statement of Necker, is 157,924 square miles; and if this estimate be just, it contains 101,071,360 acres. Spain, according to Lopez's map, contains 148,448 square miles; and consequently 95,006,720 English acres. Portugal comprehends 27,376 square miles, or 17,579,640 acres. The whole of Turkey in Europe, Asia, and Africa, estimated at 800,000 square miles, contains 512,000,000 acres. The European part of Russia is said to contain 1,194,976 square miles, and consequently 764,784,640 acres; and Asiatic Russia supposed to be 3,695,924 square miles, includes 2,364,815,360 acres. If Sweden contains 216,000 square miles, as Busching states it, its extent in English acres will be 138,240,000. Denmark, comprehending 182,400 square miles, will contain 116,736,000 acres. Poland and Lithuania, estimated at 160,800 square miles, will contain 102,912,000 acres. The kingdom of Prussia, including the countries that are independent of the German empire, supposed to contain 57,600 square miles, comprehends 36,864,000; and Prussia alone containing 22,144 square miles, includes 14,172,160 acres. Germany, estimated at 191,571 square miles, contains 122,625,440 acres. Switzerland, containing 15,296 square miles, has 9,789,440 acres. Italy, containing 90,000 square miles, has 57,600,000 acres. Hungary and Transylvania, having 92,112 square miles, include 58,951,680 acres. The number of square miles in Europe is estimated at 2,627,574, and consequently it contains 1,681,647,360 acres. The territory of the United States of America, according to the measurement and computation of Mr. Hutchins, geographer to the States, contains 589 millions of acres, exclusively of water, which is computed at 51 millions more. Morse's Geog. p. 35. See POLITCAL *Arithmetic*.

'By a statute of 31 Eliz. it was ordained, that if any man erected a new cottage, he should add four acres of land to it; but this statute was repealed by 15 Geo. III. c. 32.'

The late discussions respecting the use of *Air* in medicine and surgery afford a new and interesting article:

'AIR, in *Surgery*. The application of gaseous matters to the purposes of surgery, has not been sufficiently attended to. There is reason to believe that several aeriform substances might be employed locally, as well as internally, to considerable advantage; but it would exceed the bounds we have prescribed to this department of our work, were we to adduce all the facts that might be brought forward to illustrate the medicinal powers of air, in its different combinations. The application of fixed air, or carbonic acid gas, by means of the fermenting cataplasm, is pretty generally known, in cases of fetid and gangrenous sores. It has been advantageously used also in malignant ulcers

ulcers of the nose, tongue, and mouth, as well as in caries of the bones.

'Fixed air is plentifully obtained from a mixture of alkaline or chalky substances with vitriolic acid; and during the effervescence, applying the gas which is extricated immediately to the morbid part; or by impregnating water with it, compresses may be soaked in the water, and laid frequently over the seat of the disease. Mr. Loeffler, a German surgeon, has recommended a particular apparatus for this purpose, which may be easily constructed; and which he employs for saturating water with fixed air, by the mixture of chalk and vitriolic acid, or during the process of fermentation.

'When we wish to apply the air to a cancerous breast, for example, we are to fill a bladder with the air as it rises from the above mixture. Then introduce a tube, fixed to its orifice, into another bladder, which is to be cut round in such a manner that it can be applied like an open bag around the breast, and held close to it with the hands. When it is fastened below, it must be untied, so that the fixed air may pass out of the first into the second bladder, and find access to the ulcerated part. In order to facilitate this process, a gentle degree of pressure is to be applied to the bladder; and, as one bladder will not be sufficient, a number of them should be provided in readiness, and filled for immediate use in succession. This operation is to be continued half an hour or longer each time, and repeated twice or thrice a day.

'Mr. Witstock, who has written a German treatise on this subject, and with extraordinary success, recommends us to apply the carbonic acid gas, by means of a receiver or air-bell, connected with a flexible tube or pipe, sufficiently air-tight; but as the vitriolic acid produces too strong a commotion, the gas is extricated for such purposes from a mixture of fixed alkali and vegetable acid.

'The medicinal use of factitious airs is a subject which has been diligently considered by Dr. Beddoes, Dr. Thornton, Mr. Hill, Mr. Davy, and some other gentlemen in England; but the enquiry is still in its infancy, and has not been productive of so much public benefit as its zealous friends anticipated. Perhaps the attention of medical men to the *local* and *external* influence of gaseous matters, would better repay them for their trouble. Surgeons are not exactly agreed, whether the atmospheric air be hurtful to wounds and internal cavities, merely as air, or as it may be cold, hot, moist, dry, or variously modified. We hope these superficial hints will serve to excite the attention of professional gentlemen to this branch of the healing art. It likewise deserves further enquiry, whether the injection of fluids into the urinary bladder, impregnated with fixed air, &c. &c. be so efficacious, in calculous cases, as some persons have pretended.

'From observations on bleeding in rheumatisms, and after taking cold, it is evident, the air can enter with all its qualities and vitiate the whole texture of the blood, and other juices.

'From the palsies, vertigoes, and other nervous affections caused by damps, mines, &c. it is evident, that air thus qualified can relax and obstruct the whole nervous system. And from the colics, fluxes, coughs,

coughs, and consumptions produced by damp, moist, and nitrous air, it is evident it can corrupt and spoil the noble organs, &c.'

A short specimen of the editor's attention to Modern Geography will be found in his account of the *Alps*:

'ALPS, *Lower, Department of*, is one of the four composed out of the ci-devant Provence, in France. It is bounded on the north by the department of the Upper Alps, on the east by Piedmont and the department of the Maritime Alps, on the south by the department of the Var, and the north east extremity of that of the mouths of the Rhine, and on the west by the departments of Vaucluse and the Drôme. Its chief town is Digne. Its superficies is about 1,459,699 square acres, or 745,007 hectares; its population comprehends 144,436 individuals; and it is divided into five communal districts.

'ALPS, *Upper, Department of*, makes a part of Dauphiné, which contains three. It is bounded on the north by the departments of Mont Blanc and Isere, on the east by Piedmont, on the south by the department of the Lower Alps, on the west by that of the Drôme and part of that of Isere. Its chief town is Gap. Its superficies is about 1,084,614 square acres, or 553,569 hectares; its population comprehends 116,754 persons; and it is divided into three communal districts.

'ALPS, *Maritime, Department of*, is formed of the county of Nice. It is bounded on the north by the Apennines and the department of the Lower Alps, on the east by the republic of Genoa, on the south by the Mediterranean, and on the west by the department of the Var and Lower Alps. Its chief town is Nice. Its superficies is about 632,619 square acres, or 322,674 hectares; its population amounts to 93,366 persons; and it is divided into three communal districts.'

Under the head of *Apollo*, we have this account of the celebrated statue of that Deity called the *Apollo of Belvidere*, and of its recent removal to the emporium of the republican Gauls:

'APOLLO BELVIDERE, in *Sculpture*, a very celebrated antique statue, esteemed by the majority of artists the most excellent and sublime of all the antient productions. It was found towards the end of the fifteenth century, at Capo d'Anzo, upon the sea-coast, about twelve leagues from Rome, in the ruins of antient Antium. It was purchased by pope Julius II. when only cardinal, and placed in his palace near the church of Santi Apostoli; but soon after, being made pope, he removed it to the Belvidere of the Vatican; from whence it takes its name, and where it was for three hundred years the admiration of the world; until Rome was taken and plundered by the French, who have transported this divine statue to the Museum at Paris.

'The marble out of which this statue was worked, is of so peculiar a kind, as to occasion much doubt about the quarry it was taken from. The sculptors of Rome are all of opinion that the marble is Grecian; with the exception of one or two, who call it marble of

Luni

Luni or Carrara. However positive these opinions may be, it came most probably from a quarry totally unknown at this day.

'Some accounts have stated, that this statue was the work of Agathias the Ephesian: but the French artists, who were sent to Rome at the time of the incursion of the French into Italy, to explore the different works of art and their history, state that the author is certainly unknown.

'This statue is a standing figure, almost naked, and more than seven feet in height: it has a freedom, grace, and majesty in the whole attitude, and especially in the turn of the head, that surpasses any other antique known. The god is here represented with his quiver hanging behind his right shoulder, and his pallium over his left arm, which is extended, and has in the hand the remains of a bow, out of which he is supposed to have just discharged an arrow at the serpent Python. On this account the statue is called Apollo Pythius. The mind of the god is here so nobly exhibited, that without saying too much, he evidently appears watching the event of his aim; but with such confidence and majesty, as proceed from a certainty of success in the attempt; forming a sublime contrast to the tremulous anxiety of Discobulon, who, in another statue, is represented as having just thrown the discus. On the stump of a tree, introduced in order to strengthen the figure, is executed a serpent, the symbol of physic, of which Apollo was god. To describe this figure in few words; it is a complete composition of sublimity, elegance, activity, and youthful beauty. The right fore-arm and the left hand, which were wanting, have been restored by Giovanni Angelo da Montorsoli, pupil of Michael Angelo.

'In the eighth year of the French Republic, Bonaparte, accompanied by the third consul Lebrun, was present at the inauguration of this statue; and on the occasion, a bronze tablet was presented, in the name of the artists, by Citizen Vien, and placed on the pedestal of the statue, on which was engraved the following inscription:

La statue d'Apollon, qui s'élève sur ce piédestal
trouvée á Antium sur la fin du XVe siecle,
placée au Vatican par Jules II. au commencement du XVIe,
conquise l'an V. de la République par l'armée d'Italie,
sous les ordres du Général Bonaparte,
a été fixée ici le 21 Germinal, an VIII.
première année de son consulat.

On the opposite side of the pedestal is engraved:

Bonaparte, Ier Consul.
Cambaceres IIe Consul.
Lebrun, IIIe Consul.
Lucien Bonaparte, Ministre de l'intérieur.'

Geography being a science of which the details were not admitted into Mr. Chambers's work, we shall give an instance of Dr. Rees's introduction of it with regard to its *antient* state, as well as the slight particulars of its *modern* arrangement already quoted:

'Ararat,

'ARARAT, a mountain of Asia, in Armenia, on which the ark of Noah rested after the cessation of the deluge. Concerning the etymology of the name, Dr. Bryant observes (Anc. Myth. v. iii. p. 2.) that it is a compound of *Ar-Arat*, and signifies "the mountain of descent," being equivalent to הר-ירד Har-irad, of the Hebrews.

'Of the precise situation of this mountain different accounts have been given. Some have supposed that it was one of the mountains which divide Armenia on the south from Mesopotamia and that part of Assyria inhabited by the Curds, from whom those mountains took the name of Curdue, or Cardu; by the Greeks denominated Gordyæi. It is called by the Arabs Al-Judi, and also Thamanin. In confirmation of this opinion, it is alleged that the remains of the ark were to be seen on these mountains; and it is said, that Berosus and Abydenus both declare, that such a report existed in their time. Epiphanius pretends, if we may credit his assertion, that the relics of the ark were to be seen in his time; and we are further told, that the emperor Heraclius went from the town of Thamanin, up the mountain Al-Judi, and saw the place of the ark. Others maintain, that mount Ararat was situated towards the middle of Armenia, near the river Araxes, or Aras, about twelve miles from it, according to Tournefort, above 280 miles distant from Al-Judi, to the north-east. This mountain is called "Masis" by the Armenians, and by the Turks "Agridagh," or the heavy and great mountain; and stands about twelve leagues to the south-east of Erivan, and of Ejmiadzin, from which it is distant about two short days' journey; four leagues from the Aras, and ten to the south-west of Naxuan, or Nachidshevan, or Nactshevan, of M. D'Anville, and the Naxuana of Ptolemy. Near this city is another small town, mentioned by William de Rubruquis, who travelled through Armenia in 1253, and called Cemainum, which is by interpretation eight, and as he says, so called from the eight persons who came out of the ark and built it. This is supposed to be the same with Shemainum or Shemanum, formed of the Hebrew שמן eight, or the Themanim and Thamanim of Elmacieri and others, which was said to have been built by Noah. Ararat seems to be a part of that vast chain of mountains called Caucasus and Taurus; and upon these mountains, and in the adjacent country, were preserved more authentic accounts of the ark than in almost any other part of the world. The region about Ararat, called Araratia, was esteemed among the ancients as nearly a central part of the earth; and it is certainly as well calculated as any other for the accommodation of its first inhabitants, and for the migration of colonies, upon the increase of mankind. The soil of the country was very fruitful, and especially of that part where the patriarch made his first descent. The country also was very high, though it had fine plains and valleys between the mountains. Such a country, therefore, must, after the flood, have been the soonest exsiccated, and consequently the soonest habitable.

'Some have objected to the Mosaic account of the dove and olive, and will not allow that the ark rested in Armenia, because travellers of late have discovered no olives in that country. Thus also it might be said, that because there are in these days no balsam at Jericho,

nor date trees in Babylonia, there were none in ancient times; but the inference with regard to Armenia would be as false as it is frivolous. Strabo, who was a native of Asia Minor, speaks expressly of the fertility of Armenia, and especially (lib. xi. t. ii. p. 800.) of the region Gogarene, which he particularly mentions as productive of the olive.

'It is not certain when the descendants of Noah quitted this country. Many of the fathers were of opinion, that they did not leave it for some ages. According to Epiphanius (Hær. lib. i. p. 5.) they remained in the vicinity of Ararat for five generations, during the space of 659 years. Probably Noah might never depart from it; nor have we any account of his sons leaving it till the general migration.

'The mountain has still the name of Ararat, which it has retained through all ages. Tournefort (vol. ii. 267, &c.) has particularly described it, and from his account it seems to consist chiefly of free-stone, or calcareous sand-stone. It is a detached mountain in form of a sugar-loaf, in the midst of a very extensive plain, consisting of two summits; the lesser more sharp and pointed, the higher, which is that of the ark, lies north-west of it, and raises its head far above the neighbouring mountains, and is covered with perpetual snow. When the air is clear, it does not appear to be above two leagues from Erivan, and may be seen at the distance of four or five days' journey. Its being visible at such a distance, however, is ascribed not so much to its height, as to its lonely situation, in a large plain, and upon the most elevated part of the country. The ascent is difficult and fatiguing. Tournefort attempted it; and after a whole day's toil, he was obliged, by the snow and intense cold, to return without accomplishing his design, though in the middle of summer. On the side of the mountain that looks towards Erivan, is a prodigious precipice, very deep, with perpendicular sides, and of a rough black appearance, as if tinged with smoke.'

Architecture is merely introduced by a few general remarks; and we are referred to the *adjectival* heads *Civil*, *Military*, and *Naval*, for a discussion of the science in its relation to those three purposes. This is a singular occurrence, and must have arisen, we suppose, from the change of gentlemen engaged in that department, which appears from the lists.

Biography is another of the subjects introduced in this work which were excluded by Mr. Chambers. We have not been able to examine all the scattered articles which already occur under this head: but we are induced to recommend a considerable severity of discrimination in this branch, by observing several names which have little claim to such distinction. For instance, Dr. Amory, a dissenting clergyman, though introduced by the partial hand of Dr. Kippis into the *Biographia Britannica*, should not have been recorded either in that work or this; because, though said to be a man of worth and talents, his situation in life and his labours in the cause of literature

were

were not remarkable nor important. We rather object to the insertion of Michelagnolo Buonaroti, M. A. da Caravaggio, and others, under *Angelo*.

With respect to the size of this Dictionary: it must be admitted that a quarto is more convenient for consultation than a folio: but we think that a *larger* quarto would have been more eligible and more handsome in the present case; and we hesitate in allowing the propriety of confining the plates to this size. Maps, especially, in order to be really useful, should unquestionably be large. We hope that to this part of the design the editors will give the fullest attention; and we trust that they will not follow the specimen afforded in Part I. of Vol. II., where we meet with a map of the empire of Charlemagne, including nearly the whole of Europe and a part of Africa, on so small a scale that it reminded us of the dextrous feat of a country schoolmaster, who wrote the Lord's Prayer without abbreviation in the circumference of a silver threepence.—The plates are in general very well executed, by Messrs. Milton and Lowry.

It is at present intended to publish two volumes (each in 2 parts) in the course of every year: but, when all arrangements respecting the work are completed, the editor proposes to make the publication more rapid. According to calculation, the whole will form about 20 Volumes.

There can be no doubt of the success of a work, the design of which forms an object of such comprehensive utility, and the execution of which is guaranteed by so many respectable names. To say that it is or will be marked by errors and deficiencies is only to say that it is the production of mortals: from whom perfection, if ever to be sought, is not to be expected in a vast and arduous undertaking. We now take leave of it for the present; our future notice of it will be adapted to the circumstances which may arise at the different periods of its progress.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For APRIL, 1803.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 15. *The Church of England vindicated from Misrepresentation*; shewing their genuine Doctrines as contained in her Articles, Liturgy, and Homilies, with a particular Reference to the "Elements of Christian Theology," by the Bishop of Lincoln. By a Presbyter of the Church of England. 8vo. 3s. Mawman.

'Uniformity of opinion cannot exist, till all mankind shall be able to adopt the very same method in collecting and in arranging their ideas. In the present state of human knowlege, both the framers and the expounders of articles of faith are nearly in the same predicament; they will please some, but they cannot possibly satisfy all parties. They will be condemned as asserting too little or too much; as being too lax, or too rigid. As to the articles of the Church of England, the Bishops and Clergy who have subscribed them are not yet agreed respecting their general complexion; and it remains to be decided whether they are *Calvinistic* or *anti-Calvinistic*. The Presbyter, who writes the pamphlet before us, contends that their uniform language, sense, tenor, and design, prove them to be *Calvinistic*; and he reprobates every attempt made by the Bishop of Lincoln, to affix on them any other meaning. It is not necessary for us to become parties in this dispute: but we may be permitted *en passant* to question the propriety of accusing all those who do not subscribe the articles, in the precise sense of the original compilers, as guilty of '*disguised atheism.*' Is it impossible to acquire more correct views of religious doctrine, than were obtained by the old reformers just emerged from Popery? Are not more enlarged and liberal sentiments, on some points, to be cherished by the present members of the Christian church, than were formerly entertained? Are the Clergy of the present day obliged implicitly to respect the authority of former times? Are the Bishops to be reprobated for leaning to the side of mildness and moderation? Or is the language of the first reformers to be sacredly retained, if found to be at variance with the language of scripture? We must applaud the Bishop of Lincoln for entering his protest against the damnatory clauses of the Athanasian creed; though the present writer cannot see 'how the Church acted *unwisely* or *inconsistently* in asserting the everlasting punishment of those, who do not believe the doctrine asserted?' Let us ask him whether the *expressions*, by which the doctrine of the Trinity are set forth, can be found in Scripture; and whether it be not *inconsistent* with charity, as well as *extremely unwise*, to pronounce damnation on all who do not receive a human explication of a divine and confessedly inexplicable mystery? In one place, the Presbyter says, 'I am jealous, that they who substitute other terms, instead of scripture language, in controversy, mean to hide something under equivocal expression.' Let him apply this idea to the doctrine of the Trinity, as well as to other tenets; and before the Bishop is condemned for wishing to expunge the damnatory clauses from the Athanasian creed, let the Presbyter shew that the language of this creed is an *exact* transcript of scripture language.

It may also be asked, in what part of scripture is the assertion that "works before the grace of Christ, or which spring not of faith in Jesus Christ, *have the nature of sin?*" Sin is defined to be "a want of conformity unto or transgression of the law of God." Now if this want of conformity does not exist, how can *sin exist?* If the law of the dispensation under which a creature is placed be obeyed, can he be said to sin because he is not actuated by a principle with which it was impossible, in the very nature of things, that he should be

be acquainted? The framers of articles, either through ignorance or the predominancy of system over their judgments, may express themselves without sufficient precision: but let us beware of impeaching the justice of God.

That there is an homogeneity of sentiment pervading the articles, liturgy, and homilies of the Church, is more than can be proved; though it will be readily granted that the original compilers employed such terms as *they*, leaning more towards Geneva than Rome, *thought* would best express the doctrines which were by them considered as orthodox. In their earnest desire to frame a true system of faith, they did not omit to maintain the superiority of the Scriptures, as a rule of faith, over all human formularies; and they have expressly asserted, in the Sixth Article, that "*whatever may not be proved by scripture is not to be required of any man.*"

We must allow, however, that this Presbyter, in arguing for consistency, argues with peculiar advantage; and it is not easy for a Bishop directly to reply to him. If certain clauses have been unwisely retained, as not according with the more liberal and enlightened state of the Protestant Church, the noblest conduct would consist in a resolution to retain them no longer: but, if certain fears and apprehensions operate against this measure, the lettered clergy must be permitted to avail themselves of this *saving* or *exonerating clause*; and if Bishops point out this clause for the benefit of the subscribing clergy, which has of late been repeatedly done, it may be regarded as a kind of admitted *loop-hole for tender consciences*. More may hereafter be effected. In the mean time, accusations of inconsistency and prevarication will, with some reason, be brought forwards against those Churhmen whose views are known to differ from those of the original reformers. The preachers of election, &c. will occupy high ground, and quote the articles with exultation. The case of others of the Clergy may be considered as hard; and it may be presumed that many will take the benefit of the above mentioned *absolving clause* to qualify their assent; notwithstanding that the Calvinistic or rather semi-Calvinistic Presbyter pronounces this prevarication to be criminal.

Art. 16. *The true Churchmen ascertained:* or an Apology for those of the regular Clergy of the Establishment, who are sometimes called Evangelical Ministers, occasioned by several modern Publications. By John Overton, A.B. 8vo. pp. 422. 8s. Boards. Mawman.

It is remarked by Mr. Overton, in his preface, that 'the commencement of the nineteenth century is not a season when men can be hoodwinked respecting their religion.' This may be true; yet is it not a little strange that, in the nineteenth century, Clergymen of the same church should be disputing with each other not only about the doctrines of the gospel, but about the meaning or genuine sense of the articles of religion, to which subscription is required in order to prevent diversity of opinions? Mr. O. is a strenuous advocate for those who are called and call themselves Evangelical Ministers; and who regard their subscription oath as obliging them to preach Calvinism, believing this to be the doctrine of the Articles.

To accomplish his object, he takes a very wide scope, and employs singular labour and perseverance. Reprobating all latitudinarian subscribers of the articles, he contends that these ought to be understood according to the natural, obvious, and full signification of the words; and he ventures to assert that 'the articles, homilies, and liturgy, though composed at different times and for different purposes, do in point of doctrine, uniformly breathe the same spirit and express themselves with the same degree of force.' Mr. O. does not exhibit, as he ought to have done, the genuine language of Calvin: but he institutes a particular inquiry into the private sentiments of our Reformers; and to prove the utility of that style of preaching which he honours with the epithet of Calvinistic or Evangelical, an appeal is made to the crouded churches, animated doctrines, and number of exemplary characters, that are to be found wherever this doctrine is the constant theme. The compilers of the articles are said to have possessed 'an *extraordinary degree* of intellect;' and all who extenuate or evade the plain, literal, and full meaning of them, and do *not* teach them as they were first delivered by our Reformers, are charged with *disingenuousness*, and advised to relinquish their connection with the Established Church, as being semi-dissenters or schismatics. 'We (says Mr. O.) are the true Churchmen; and they who do not *speak the same things as* the Church, who are not *perfectly* joined together in the same mind and in the same judgment, are *not* of the Church.'

This is a most authoritative decision; and, considering the various opinions entertained respecting the subject in debate, by good and eminent members of the Establishment, it borders on presumption. Mr. O. should not think of excluding from the Church those who do not contemplate the affair of subscription, and regard the sense of the articles, exactly in the same light with himself. He has noticed many respectable divines of the present day who have publicly avowed different sentiments; and this very circumstance ought to have restrained him from arrogating to himself, and his supposed Calvinistic brethren, the title of *the true* Churchmen.

Art. 17. *The Articles of the Church of England proved not to be Calvinistic.* By Thomas Kipling, D.D. Dean of Peterborough, &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Mawman.

"Who shall decide when Doctors disagree?" Here is a point-blank-denial of that hypothesis which Mr. Overton has taken such uncommon pains to establish; and, to give him a *Rowland* for his *Oliver*, Dr. Kipling charges him with being schismatical on the very title of his publication, which speaks not of the true *Church-of-England men*, but of the true *Churchmen*. Leaving them to settle this affair of schism, we shall attend to the evidence of this anti-Calvinist.

Avoiding all circuitous discussion, Dr. K. pursues a straight forwards course, and exerts all his power to bring the dispute, as far as it respects the pure Calvinism of the Church, to a satisfactory conclusion. In the first place, he supplies a strange omission of his antagonists; in ascertaining the exact sentiment of Calvinism, in its prominent feature, *Predestination*, including Reprobation, as well as Election, by consulting and making extracts from the writings of Calvin himself;

himself; after which necessary preliminary, taking advantage of the concession both of Mr. O. and the Presbyter of the Church of England, that the doctrines of the Articles are interwoven in the forms of Public Worship, and that there is a perfect correspondence between them, he proceeds 'to compare so many and such parts of the Liturgy with the true Calvinistic doctrine, as will fully enable every person of candour and judgment to decide, whether this Liturgy and this doctrine are in perfect harmony with each other.' Here Dr. K. completely triumphs. He proves that the language in the Absolution, that "Almighty God who *desireth not* the death of a sinner," that the prayer to be delivered from "everlasting damnation," and that the final benediction "the Grace of our Lord, &c. be with you *all*," cannot comport with Calvin's doctrine of Elects and Reprobates. He observes that the part of the Athanasian creed which declares that "all men shall *give account* for their *works*," the prayers in the Office for Baptism, and the Collect for the 25th Sunday after Trinity, not to mention other addresses to the Deity, are evidently Anti-Calvinistic; and he shews wherein the wording of the Articles is at variance with the expressions employed by Calvin. That the Reformers inclined towards Calvinism, though they might not embrace the complete system which Dr. K. very justly, in our opinion, pronounces to be blasphemous, there can be little doubt; and this will account for the Calvinistic colouring attempted to be thrown over the Articles. The reason which prevents the Liturgy from agreeing with Calvinism is that it was compiled from a book, all the prayers of which proceed on the principle that good works done in this life will be *rewarded* in another. In fact, exhortation, prayer, and a day of judgment, are useless on the Calvinistic scheme.

A singularity of expression pervades the Articles, which has no counterpart in the Liturgy; and since this singularity is not supported by scripture, why should the preachers of these times be so strenuous for its adoption in pulpit-exhortations? Is this desire prompted by a pure love of the Gospel, or by party-spirit, from which Theologians are not, alas! exempted? Howmuchsoever the Articles may have satisfied their compilers, who lived at the dawn of the Reformation, we may venture to assert that there are very few intelligent divines of the present day, who can read them with cordial and unqualified approbation.

Art. 18. *Remarks on the Doctrine of Justification by Faith:* In a Letter to the Rev. John Overton, A.B. Author of a Work intitled "The true Churchmen ascertained." By Edward Pearson, B.D. Rector of Rempstone, Notts. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

The object of Mr. Pearson's letter is to controvert the truth of a passage in Mr. Overton's work, asserting that 'Good works are neither the *meritorious cause*, nor the *appointed condition* of justification.' To rebut this doctrine, Mr. Pearson reminds Mr. O. that the Christian Religion is a *covenant*, and that a covenant implies conditions of *entering* into it at first, and conditions of continuing in it. Hence he proceeds to an examination of the positions of St. Paul and St. James, and concludes with maintaining, on the basis of the promised rewards

of the Gospel, that those performances, without which any proposed reward cannot be obtained, may properly and truly be called the *conditions* of obtaining it.

What reply can Mr. O. make?

Art. 19. *Remarks on a Pamphlet, by Thomas Kipling, D.D. Dean of Peterborough,* intitled, "*The Articles of the Church of England proved not to be Calvinistic.*" By Academicus. 8vo. 1s. Mawman, &c.

Labitur et Labetur—How *ingeniously* have the compilers contrived, under the pretext of promoting Unity, to throw an eternal bone of contention among the clergy of our Church! To opinion, opinion is opposed; zeal is encountered by zeal; and to *cherish the spirit of love*, one hard word is exchanged for another. *Academicus* is much dissatisfied with Dr. Kipling, and in one respect he is certainly justified in his displeasure: since the Dean of Peterborough was chargeable with unwarrantable severity in the motives which he ascribed to his opponents, and for such illiberality he merited reproof. In administering that reproof, this writer is more successful than in his endeavours to subvert the Dean's argument. The sentiments and language of Calvin were no doubt partly copied by the compilers of the Articles: but, in as much as the doctrine of Reprobation is not maintained, they are not *altogether* Calvinistic. Yet this omission of the doctrine of Reprobation is so far from satisfying *Academicus* that the founders disbelieved it, that he concludes, from 'the very words of the Article (the 17th), that they held the doctrine of Predestination both with respect to the Elect and the Reprobate.' We may remark, however, that the private sentiments of the compilers are here of no consequence; because, since they have designedly abstained from insisting expressly on the doctrine of reprobation, that tenet cannot be adduced as constituting a part of the Established Creed.

Academicus is not more prosperous in his examination of the Liturgy. The collect for Good Friday, "O Merciful God, who hatest nothing that thou hast made," cannot be Calvinistic; for Calvin says, "*Reprobos Deo* exosos *esse?*" but *Academicus* inquires, 'Do not the Scriptures say, "Thou *hatest* all them that work wickedness?" as if these passages were synonymous?

We are anxious to dismiss this tiresome subject *; and we humbly offer it as our opinion, that it would more conduce to the purposes of religion, and be more consistent with the conviction which we have of our own ignorance, if we abandoned all controversy on the divine decrees respecting individuals, and confined ourselves to the general and practical belief that "*the Deity chooses or elects him that is godly for himself.*" This would be plain and safe sailing.

Art. 20. *Anguis in Herba!* A Sketch of the true Character of the Church of England and her Clergy: as a Caveat against the Misconstruction of artful and the Misconception of weak Men, on the Subject of a Bill about to be brought into Parliament for the Revisal of certain Ecclesiastical Statutes concerning Non-Residence, &c. &c. &c. By the Rev. James Hook, M.A. F.S.A. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ginger. 1802.

* But, alas; a *Reply* to *Academicus* is just advertized!

Some

Some have spoken of *Jacobinism* or modern philosophy in vague terms: but Mr. Hook tries to draw its picture: he says, it is 'a *chimera* with the head of an atheist, the heart of a cannibal, the tongue of a patriot, and the hue of the camelion.' Having executed this portrait, he proceeds to attribute to the diabolical spirit of this monster the *hue and cry* which has been raised against the Clergy on the score of non-residence and plurality; neither of which, evils it seems, is carried to any alarming extent. Mr. Hook hopes that, though the *poverty* of the Church cannot be remedied, she may at least be secured from insults and protected against pettifoggers; who, when they attempt to levy fines on the ministers of God, can be nothing less than instruments of sedition.

Art. 21. *An Examination of the First Part of a Pamphlet, called An Appeal to the Society of Friends.* By Vindex. 8vo. 1s. W. Phillips.

Our mention of the *Appeal* (M. R. Vol. xxxvii. p. 426. N. S.) was accompanied by a parenthetical hint that the author seemed to succeed but lamely in his attempt. The object of this Examiner is to prove that the Appellant cited very unfairly from the writings of the early Quakers; and that whoever deduces a judgment of their opinions from his quotations will consequently form an erroneous one. He complains of modern disturbers of the brethren, and, with an evident predilection for orthodoxy, condemns the discussion of abstruse points of doctrine as injurious to the cause of righteousness.

POETIC, *and* DRAMATIC.

Art. 22. *Saint Peter's Denial of Christ:* a Seatonian Prize Poem. By Rev. William Cockburn, M. A. Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. 4to. 2s. Rivingtons. 1802.

This poem begins with an address to 'truth,' praying that goddess to guide and inspire the poet; who disclaims any appeal to an 'ideal muse,' as being unworthy of his subject. Yet *Truth personified* appears to us as much an *ideal Being*, as the 'Heavenly Muse' whom Milton invokes to aid his song. The poem, however, does credit to Mr. Cockburn; whose use of peculiar words shews that he is not a stranger either to Milton or Spenser. The contraction of 'penitent' into two syllables, however, is harsh, and Milton does not authorize such a liberty:—but, refraining from minute criticism, we quote a short episode to Peace, as a favourable specimen of the author's talents:

'But come, sweet Peace,
Religion's handmaid! from thy native skies
Benign in loveliness descend, and soothe
With thy mild eloquence man's savage breast,
Unveil thy beauties to his rapt'ur'd gaze,
And lull each angry passion to repose:
Not with more anxious hope on Ararat
Did Noah once expect the dove's return;
Not with more eager eye the Lapland swain
Looks from the horrid height of Dofrine snows

'Mid the dark whirlwind for the first bright beam
Of the long-tarrying day, than I have look'd
For thee, fair visitant!—Welcome at length
To Europe's war-stain'd plains, long may'st thou shed
Thy grateful influence o'er a happy world.—
—But whither does my fancy stray? The thoughts
Of thee, celestial maid! too far have drawn
Me from my purpos'd subject;—so the moon
Attracts the nightly traveller's willing eye,
And whilst he gazes on her placid charms,
He wanders devious from his destin'd course.'

Art. 23. *John Woodvil, A Tragedy.* By C. Lamb. To which are added, Fragments of Burton, the Author of the Anatomy of Melancholy. 8vo. 3s. Robinsons. 1802.

The lugubrious muse of Mr. Lamb, whose efforts in ballad and elegy we have recorded in our review of the *Annual Anthology* *, has now assumed the buskin, and presents us with an imitation of old English tragedy. We should have felt ourselves somewhat puzzled to characterize the hero, had not the author kindly furnished us with the appropriate epithet of '*lukewarm John.*' The piece is indeed as mawkish a composition as ever critic was compelled to digest:—but, if John be lukewarm, the heroine, Margaret, is sufficiently ardent, for she wooes and wins the gentleman—to ask her to pray with him!

'*John.* Excellent Lady,
Whose suit hath drawn this softness from my eyes,
Nor the world's scorn, nor falling off of friends,
Could ever do. Will you go with me, Margaret?
'*Margaret, rising.* Go whither, John?
'*John.* Go in with me,
And pray for the peace of our unquiet minds?
'*Marg.* That I will, John.——'

Precious souls! we have met with nothing so edifying since we read, in our youth, the *Religious Courtship.*

The merit of novelty, however, must be conceded to the author, in the catastrophe of the piece. Every species of tragical distress had apparently been exhausted: some heroes were hanged; others were married; and others were broken on the wheel. Dryden, as the climax of misfortune, threatened to put one of his heroes into the spiritual court: but the daring genius of Mr. Lamb has roused his '*lukewarm John*' to go to prayers at his parish church at six o'clock in the morning!—*Credite posteri!* We omit the careful specification of the dialogue, which ascertains, first, that the bells supposed to be heard are church-bells; secondly, that the aforesaid bells are the bells of St. Mary's Ottery; and thirdly, that they are the bells of 'lukewarm John's' native parish in Devonshire. Nothing can be wanting to complete this exhibition, but that John and Margaret should chant "*All people that on earth do dwell,*" before the dropping of the

* See Rev. vols. xxxi. and xxxiii. N. S.

curtain.

curtain. The tragedy would then conclude with some lines worthy the attention of the audience.

It is impossible to dismiss this strange performance, without adverting to the new class of authors, who endeavour to attract the public notice by substituting carelessness for exertion, and meanness for sublimity. We can account for their conduct on no other principle than that of Boileaux;

"*Un sot trouve toujours un plus sot qui l'admire.*"

but of what description must the intellect be that can endure the tragedy before us, in which there is neither verse nor prose, nor reason nor nature?

The fragments, said to have been found in a common-place of Burton, are imitations of that author's style, which any man might produce with a *Florilegium* before him.

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 24. *Observations on the Epidemical Diseases now prevailing in London*; with their Divisions, Method of Treatment, Prevention, &c. By Robert Hooper, M.D. Resident Physician to the St. Mary-le-Bone Infirmary, &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray. 1803.

The attention of the public has been lately called to the existence of an epidemic disease, which has shewn itself in a great variety of forms, and has been extremely prevalent, not only in the metropolis but in distant parts of the country. Dr. Hooper's observations appeared about the time of its greatest violence, and were intended to exhibit a view of its remote causes, the general symptoms common to every form of it, its particular divisions, and the morbid appearances discovered by the examination of such cases as terminated fatally. The opportunities of obtaining extensive information on any prevailing disease, which are officially enjoyed by the ingenious author, necessarily give to his remarks a degree of weight, which cannot attach to such as have been derived from more limited experience.

The remote causes mentioned in this essay do not essentially differ from such as are usually found to produce catarrh. The general symptoms enumerated are; pain of the head; pains of the chest and limbs; dry and contracted skin, frequent pulse; tongue white in the centre, with the edges red and studded with very florid papillæ, giving a strawberry appearance; bowels constipated; violent catarrhal symptoms; considerable prostration of strength; occasional vertigo, delirium, coma, and bilious vomiting. These symptoms shewed themselves in some degree under every form of the epidemic; and the particular varieties, under which it for the most part appeared, were those of *peripneumonia vera*, *peripneumonia notha*, catarrh, and acute rheumatism.—The method of cure, also, recommended by Dr. Hooper does not vary from that which is usually adopted for the removal of similar complaints. Persons of adult years seemed to be more readily affected by the epidemic than children; and the aged, or such only as laboured under previous acute diseases, formed the chief number of its victims.

The following appearances were observed by the author on dissection:

'*In the Head.*

'1. Inflammation of the internal lamina of the dura mater. A thickening of the tunica arachnoidea, principally upon the hemispheres of the brain.'

'2. In one instance several spots of extravasated blood of the extent of a silver three-pence.

'3. A very transparent fluid effused between the arachnoid membrane and pia mater, and the intergyral spaces much distended.

'4. A high state of vascularity of the pia mater.

'5. The larger vessels and the sinuses contained coagulable lymph, which could be drawn out, and presented the form of their ramifications.

'6. The frontal sinuses full of a yellow mucus.

'*In the Throat and Neck.*

'1. A high state of vascularity of the membrane lining the posterior fauces, and covering the epiglottis.

'2. A tumefaction of the membrane lining the glottis.

'3. Great redness of the membrane lining the trachea, and here and there a state resembling gangrene.

'*In the Thorax.*

'1. An uncommon appearance of the muscles on the anterior part of the chest:—portions of the pectoralis major and upper packets of the rectus abdominis, were white, like coagulable lymph, so as to give the muscle a mottled appearance.

'2. Inflammation of the pleura costalis, with an effusion of coagulable lymph.

'3. Inflammation of the pleura pulmonalis, with an effusion of coagulable lymph, which conglutinated the lobes together.

'The healthy structure of the greater part of one or other lung destroyed, and converted into a grayish white hard mass, which, when squeezed, gave out a similar coloured fluid like thin pus. In some instances, the colour and consistence was like liver, and almost gangrenous: both of these sunk in water. These appearances of the lung were precisely like the lung of those who die at other times of pneumonia.

'5. The blood-vessels of the lungs plugged up with coagulable lymph.

'6. The pleura covering the diaphragm thickened, and covered with coagulable lymph.

'7. The right auricle and ventricle, and the pulmonary artery, distended with a very firm coagulable lymph, generally termed polypi.

'8. The intercostal veins and vena azygos very much distended with blood.

'*In the Abdomen.*

'1. Peritoneal inflammation here and there of the liver, stomach, and intestines.

'2. Inflammation of the erysipelatous kind of the villous coat of the stomach.

'3. The bile very dark and thin.'

Dr.

Dr. H. conceives that this epidemic arose from sudden changes of weather; and he is of opinion that it was not communicable from one person to another. If he admits, however, the last mentioned circumstance, we know not for what reason he defines one of his divisions, that of catarrh, to be 'cold from contagion.' Sudden vicissitudes of heat and cold are certainly capable of producing very considerable effects on the human body: but, when we recollect that changes fully as striking as those which have occurred during the late season have often taken place without the production of influenza, we are inclined to suspect the operation of other causes than those which the thermometer is capable of indicating.

Art. 25. *Some Observations on the present Epidemic Catarrhal Fever or Influenza:* chiefly in relation to its Mode of Treatment. To which are subjoined historical Abstracts concerning the Catarrhal Fevers of 1762, 1775, and 1782. By Richard Pearson, M.D. 8vo. pp. 26. 1s. 6d. C. and R. Baldwin.

In these observations, the author describes the late epidemic as having assumed numerous appearances, and existed in various degrees of violence. Its most frequent phænomena are represented to be as follow:

'After some alternations of chilliness and heat, the patient is seized with a heaviness or pain of the head, with sneezing, wateriness of the eyes, hoarseness and cough. These symptoms come on in the order here stated. In the course of a few hours the headach increases, the skin becomes hot, with a pain in the back and limbs, or transitory stitches across the chest. The tongue is white; the pulse quick or frequent, and for the most part soft. There is more or less of sickness at the stomach, and sometimes vomiting. The bowels are generally costive; and considerable uneasiness, often amounting to great pain, is felt in some part of the abdomen. By the 2d or 3d night, the cough and fever become greatly aggravated. The former, viz. the cough, is strong and incessant, sometimes dry, but generally accompanied (even at its first coming on) with an expectoration of thin, sharp mucus: The latter, viz. the fever, is attended with increased heat, and with extreme restlessness and anxiety. There is also some confusion of the head. At this time the pulse is often from 110 to 120. In the morning there is a considerable remission of the febrile symptoms; but the cough still continues urgent, and the patient complains of excessive languor and dejection of spirits.

'After the 4th or 5th day, where early perspirations have come on, or sufficient evacuations have been procured by the bowels, the fever declines; and although the cough continues, the expectoration is more free, the sputum being of a thicker consistence, and milder quality. The urine, which before was high-coloured and clear, now becomes turbid, or throws down a sediment. In other instances, the cough goes off without any remarkable degree of expectoration.

'The lassitude and depression of spirits, with restless nights, harass the patients for many days after the decline of the fever; which indeed, in several instances, does not entirely go off after the 5th day,

day, but becomes intermittent, the patient feeling himself worse every other day.'

Dr. P. regards the fever, and not the pectoral symptoms, as in general constituting the essence of the complaint; and therefore he advises the treatment to be commenced with such remedies as act on the system at large, through the medium of the stomach and alimentary canal: viz. emetics and mercurial cathartics; and afterward, blisters, diaphoretics, gentle opiates, crystals of tartar as a diuretic, expectorants, and proper ventilation. He considers the disease as decidedly contagious; and, after having summed up the *Nocentia* and *Juvantia*, he concludes by an abstract from the more characteristic symptoms of the epidemic catarrhs which appeared in the years 1762, 1775, and 1782; all of which, he is of opinion, were extremely analogous to that of which he gives an account in the present essay.

On the subject of the contagious nature of the late prevailing disease, it seems to be difficult to form any thing like an accurate opinion, from our being unable precisely to discriminate between the effects of an epidemic constitution of the air, and those of the individual communication of infection. When sporadic cases only of catarrh occur, they are decidedly not contagious; and when this disease appears in an epidemic form, the influence of the atmosphere, on whatever that influence may depend, is so conjoined with the effects of the contagion supposed to originate from the human body, as to render it difficult to appropriate to each its exact share of operation.

Dr. Pearson makes no observations on the fatality of the disease, nor on the periods of life and states of body most liable to its severer forms. In an advertisement, he mentions his design of publishing a continuation of his remarks; and he intimates a wish to have the communications of other practitioners, for the purpose of annexing them to his own observations.

We must object to the liberty which the author takes, in his advertisement, of employing the plural number when speaking of himself: since this is a prerogative which, from long and undoubted prescription, WE alone, with the other potentates of the earth, may exercise and enjoy; and with which we deem it presumptuous in any individual to interfere.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 26. *The Tocsin of Social Life:* addressed to all Nations of the civilized World; in a Discovery of the Laws of Nature relative to human Existence. By John Stewart, the Traveller. 8vo. 2s. Ginger.

We shall not call on this traveller to declare whether it was in the Sibyl's grot, in Polypheme's cave, or in Cerberus's den, that he made the *wonderful* discovery, to which the Sovereigns of Europe are here required to attend: since, though promulgated as *new* light, it is only darkness some thousand years old. 'The important discovery is simply this:—that all bodies are in a perpetual state of transmutation, in composition or decomposition, that is, life and death; that nothing can be created, and nothing annihilated; that what is called identity,

identity, or individuality of mode, is nothing but a succession of matter and its powers; and that when the clue of that succession breaks, identity ceases, while its substance, or essential matter that formed it, revolves in dispersed particles or atoms into states of new successions of matter and its powers, or identities, in an endless course of transmutations, or circulations throughout the universe.'

How this doctrine is applied, ask us not, gentle reader, to explain; for the wild and rambling contents of this pamphlet baffle all review. In the address to Bonaparte, the author says that, 'the dead body in the tomb does not gravitate towards the coffin or the stones, but to the earth's centre, where it circulates in union and interchange of atoms with the whole mundane system.'

Our time is too precious to allow us to waste more of it on Mr. S. and *his* system.

Art. 27. *Thoughts on the Formation of the Earth.* By a Farmer. 4to. 2s. 6d. Richardson. 1802.

This farmer has entered on a bold undertaking: but he discovers so much modesty and diffidence respecting its success, that we feel disposed to treat him with the utmost civility. His theory, suggested by partial appearances, and especially by the existence of petrifactions in sand-stone, &c. may be as good as some other theories. The facts, indeed, which he adduces, are no more new than the conclusion which he draws from them, viz. that the present islands and continents have been covered by the sea. Linné, in his *Reflections on the Study of Nature,* offers it as his decided opinion that the quantity of land is continually increasing, and that of the water decreasing; this writer, however, contends for the opposite doctrine, and urges the probability of the lands being again submerged in the ocean, and of fishes being a second time lords of this universe; yet he kindly consoles us by suggesting that this event 'might not happen for an hundred millions of centuries to come.'—Since all world-makers must be allowed to compare great things with small, the gentle reader will excuse this humble geologist for illustrating his remarks by the cooling of pitch, the baking of bread, and the congelation of soap.—He supposes that mercury constitutes a great part of the interior of the globe.—Towards the conclusion, he grows poetical, and evidently wishes to keep on civil terms with Moses: but we cannot say that, as our old friend Whitehurst promised the Bishop, *he makes Moses a greater man than ever he was.*

Art. 28. *The Soldier of Dierenstein*; or Love and Mercy. An Austrian Story. By H.S.H. the M. of A—. (the Margravine of Anspach.) 8vo. 3s. 6d. White.

This peculiar story is divided into 26 stanzas, and is told in the manner of Ossian, with elegance and pastoral simplicity.—It is humorously dedicated to the Austrian Eagle, who is invoked in its defence against the *talons* of the critic:—but why is the critic deemed a foe to merit? He is her friend, her champion eagle.

Art. 29. *An Essay on the Character and Doctrines of Socrates.* 4to. pp. 22. Printed at Oxford.

Whatever may be the merits of this essay with regard to *matter*, and it certainly has merit in that respect, in point of composition it is

is very defective. The different parts do not unite in a connected and perspicuous manner, and the structure of the sentences is too often faulty and obscure. We advise the author to consult Blair's Lectures on Composition.

It may be collected from the preface, though it is not very distinctly expressed, that this essay was written in competition for a prize, and failed of success.

CORRESPONDENCE.

In answer to Mr. Montagu's polite letter, in reference to our account of his *Ornithological Dictionary*, (Rev. for February) we beg leave to assure him that nothing was farther from our intention than to impute to him any thing that could be construed into wilful neglect. Had we been aware that neither his own observation, (which we believe to be at once extensive and minute,) nor his private communications with his friend, Dr. Latham, could justify our expectation of his insertion of the articles to which we alluded, we should gladly have acted as his apologists. Their non-appearance in the Dictionary, even though unavoidable, may, in our apprehension, be expressed by *omission*, in the absolute sense of the term: though, at the same time, we are by no means disposed to cavil about words.

With Mr. Montagu, we acknowlege *generally* the fallibility of colour, especially of that of the plumage, as a test of specific distinctions; with him, too, we are averse from every unnecessary multiplication of species: but our remark relative to the *Ringed Plover* is founded on the constancy of the black bill and legs; and nothing short of a tolerably ample induction of particulars can convince us of the contrary. We wish not, however, to impose our assertions on either old or young ornithologists: nor can Mr. Montagu's favourite branch of natural history receive material injury, if, in the present instance, he should retain his belief, and we should retain ours.

We are obliged by a *Constant Reader*'s communication of his Thoughts on the Slave-Trade, and his request for our farther remarks: but we despair of having any influence on this subject, and must refrain from extra-official digressions.

Our Cambro-British Correspondent *A. B.* is informed that our silence was not to be attributed to any of the reasons which he suggests, as the present Number will testify.

The letter from our friend at Fochabers was duly received, but we have not yet seen the publication to which it alludes.

The hint of *Brevis* shall not be overlooked: neither should this Gentleman forget the hurried nature of a periodical publication.

We cannot at present either verify or dispute the representation of *B. G.*, having mislaid the book concerning which he writes.

*** The APPENDIX to this Volume of the Review will be published with the Number for MAY.

APPENDIX

TO THE

FORTIETH VOLUME

OF THE

MONTHLY REVIEW

ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Histoire du Canal du Midi*, &c.; *i. e.* History of the Canal of the South, formerly known under the Name of the Canal of Languedoc. By Fs. ANDREOSSY, General of Division, and Inspector-General of the Corps of Artillery. 8vo. pp. 412. Paris. 1800.

THE utility of canals is at present generally acknowleged, because experience has shewn that they form a mode of communication from one part of a country to another which is much cheaper than that of roads, and much more commodious and certain than that of rivers; especially if the latter be in the vicinity of mountains, and subject to torrents: since torrents not only prevent barges from ascending the river, but choak the channel with the matter which they wash down from the higher grounds, and not unfrequently destroy their banks and towing paths. On the contrary, in a canal which is skilfully constructed, there is neither a stream nor a rise of water, beyond certain points in its banks.

The ingenious and learned author of the present treatise, who is now known to our readers as ambassador from the French Republic to this country, first briefly and neatly states the advantages arising from the facility of interior communication, and then arranges canals in four classes; 1st, those which carry into the sea the water that is drained from marshes, of which kind is the canal that stretches along the Appian road, and receives the discharge of the drains made for the Pontine marshes; 2dly, canals of the same sort; but

on a higher level than the plains, the rivers, and the sea, such as the canals used in Holland; 3dly, those which are derived from rivers, such as the canals of the Brenta, of the Adda, and the Tesino, in Italy; and lastly, those which are carried over elevated ground, of which description are the *Canal du Centre*, formed on the mountains of antient Burgundy, and the Canal of the South. The third kind, M. ANDREOSSY observes, may be comprehended under the fourth, since canals of derivation (*canaux dérivés*) may be regarded as branches of canals made on high ground.

The canal of Languedoc, executed in the 17th century by MM. *Riquet* and *Andreossy* (the latter an ancestor of the present General), is one of those which passes over elevated ground. At a point called a point of departure, a quantity of water is collected from springs or rivers, and thence suffered to flow in canals cut on two different slopes. Sluices sustain the water on these sloping grounds, and aqueducts afford a passage to superfluous and irregular waters. This sort of canals serves equally for the purposes of irrigation and navigation.

In many instances, the point of departure may be fixed without great difficulty: but the determination of it in the case of the canal of Languedoc was not easy. An intimate acquaintance with the topography of the country lying between the ocean and the Mediterranean was requisite; or, in other words, a knowlege of the courses of small streams and rivers, since they with certainty indicate the form of a country:

'Water (says M. ANDREOSSY) being subject to the operation of invariable principles, viz. gravitation, and the constant mobility of its parts, must proceed from its source in the route pointed out by the declivity of the ground; or must overcome the obstacles which prevent it from following those particular and general inclinations, that are favourable to its flowing towards the principal reservoirs, or towards the sea. Thus the course of waters gives the figure of the ground; and from this indication also, we shall be able to judge of the topography of the same ground, and of various accidental circumstances.'

Proceeding on the same route which probably his ancestor pursued in order to fix on the point of departure, M. ANDREOSSY examines, according to the foregoing notions, the nature of the ground lying between the Mediterranean and the ocean. From this investigation, it appears that Naurouse is the proper point of departure; and that from this point the ground slopes off towards the Garonne, which runs into the ocean, and towards the Aude, which takes its course to the Mediterranean.

When

When the point of departure is ascertained, much is accomplished, but many difficulties still remain. This point, the highest in the whole of the canal, must be furnished with water, and in such abundance that almost the whole of the canal may be thence supplied: because, although from a certain spot the communication might sometimes be easily made between the two seas, by descending along two rivers that have courses down two inclined planes; yet many objections lie against the attempt to form a public and active navigation on such rivers, when situated near high lands:—they are subject to sudden increase from rain, and are liable to much decrease or even to be dry in the middle of summer. Hence, in a perfect inland navigation, rivers are to be avoided, and canals are to be cut in their direction.

In fixing on the point of departure, we should have mentioned that, provided it be above the level of the canal, it ought to be as low as possible, in order to avoid the multiplication of locks and sluices.—Naurouse being chosen for this purpose, it appeared that a supply of water might be procured from rivers and springs, by turning the beds of the former, and conducting the latter to the proper points by artificial canals: the great constructor of the work then directed his attention to the Black Mountain (*Montagne Noire*), and there found sufficient supplies of water. This mountain, at the place at which it terminates, pours out streams in several directions; and consequently, in the space of a semicircle of inconsiderable radius, it presents the near approach of the origin of the course of many natural waters. It is also covered with excellent forests, and contains many resources from which great advantages may be derived.

'We cannot (says the author) stand at this culminating point, without experiencing admiration and respect; and without sympathizing with that enthusiasm which in 1786 dictated to a young and learned naturalist those animated reflections, which could originate only in an elevated mind, capable of comprehending and of appreciating great ideas. The common granite is the constant and only basis of the Black Mountain; it always shews itself there under the same appearances; and it forms only low and flat hills, remaining buried under a surface of earth which produces the oak and the broom. In this sterile and monotonous country, no plant excites the attention of the Naturalist, no irregularity strikes the eye, no grand feature of Nature takes possession of the senses nor awakens the imagination: but it is stamped with the genius of the author of the canal, and we cannot take a step without strong emotions and warm admiration. Here the observer is placed, if I may so express myself, before the origin and cause of the canal of Languedoc: he discovers its mechanism, and he holds its key. The project of the

engineer of this grand work here easily explains itself, and the simplicity of the means exceeds the boldness of the undertaking. In other parts, it seems an effort of art constraining Nature: for there, art surpasses Nature by simply imitating her. A *narrow and tortuous channel, and two lakes of moderate size*, are the simple means that form and maintain, from one sea to the other, a factitious river; the waters of which, kept up and (as it were) suspended at will, can never deceive the expectation of the merchant, nor destroy the hopes of the cultivator.'

In this mountain, the engineer raised a mound; which, stopping the torrent, turned its water into a channel, called the channel or canal of the mountain (*rigole de la montagne*), and which canal receives the waters of four rivers. It is cut along a bed of granite to the mountain of Campmase, through which a tunnel is formed; and the waters, issuing thence, precipitate themselves into the bed of the river Laudot, and follow the course of that stream to the grand reservoir of St. Ferriol. A second channel, called the canal or channel of the plain, commences at Pont Crouzet, receives the waters of the Sor, and joins the canal cut from the reservoir of St. Ferriol at the Hamlet of Thomases: from which point, the waters are conducted along a valley to Naurouse.

At the conflux of the two canals, machinery is erected to keep the water at its proper height, and to discharge any that is superfluous and irregular.

The length of the canals, from the river Alzau, (where the canal of the mountain begins,) is 30,060 toises, or about 34 miles.

One of the greatest works belonging to the canal of Languedoc is the reservoir of St. Ferriol; which was effected by throwing a bar across the valley of the Laudot. Its shape is that of a scalene triangle, the shortest side being formed by the bar or dike across the valley. The length of the reservoir is 800 toises (1600 yards), its breadth near the dike 400 toises, and its greatest depth 99 feet.—The bason of Lampy, another reservoir, is of very inferior dimensions.—M. Andreossy has given a clear and full description of each.

We should far exceed our limits, were we to follow this philosophical author along the two branches of the canal, and examine with him the various expedients and machinery which have been employed for the use and safety of this vast work. It appears to be, according to what he says, a *chef d'œuvre* of the hydraulic art, and reflects infinite honour on the knowlege, the sagacity, and the intellectual boldness of its original projector.—It may not be altogether useless, however, to state the author's division of his treatise, and some of the historical particulars.

In

In the first chapter, the project of the canal of the South is considered as deduced from the direction of the waters of the country; and a general view of the canal is taken, from the point of departure to its extreme points. In the second, is considered its connexion with maritime and other lakes in its vicinity. Chapter 3d contains an analysis of the works of art constructed on the canal. Chapter 4th compares the product and consumption of its waters. In chapter 5th, are considered the means of augmenting its quantity of water. Chapter 6th treats of the management of this canal. Chapter 7th and last contains a discussion respecting the real author of the project, and the construction of the canal; and this section is intitled to particular notice, because it is probable that the present publication originated in the author's desire of vindicating the fame of his ancestor *F. Andreossy.*

The undertaker of, or contractor for, the canal of Languedoc was undoubtedly *Paul Riquet*; and he obtained the profits which accrued from its execution. His family being enriched and ennobled by it, and his name frequently connected with the mention of the canal, in conversation, and in public acts, to him also the glory of the project and the plan has been transferred: but the real author, in all that regards its design and plan, was *François Andreossy.* This ingenious man was born at Paris in 1633, where he studied the mathematics: but, having subsequently retired from the metropolis to Languedoc, he quitted Narbonne for Italy in the year 1660; through which country he travelled in order to acquire greater knowlege of the hydraulic art.

'Rich with the information which he had acquired, (says the present author,) *F. Andreossy,* on his return to Languedoc in the same year, communicated to *Riquet* his project for the canal, gained his approbation of it, and induced him to obtain the sanction of the minister *Colbert.* In order, however, to make it agreeable to Louis the Fourteenth, the minister required that the Chevalier *Clerville,* commissary-general of the fortifications, who possessed much credit at court, should present the plan and manifest its utility. It rarely happens that men, who are raised to those eminent places which call for the exclusive confidence of government, sufficiently divest themselves of self-love, to give weight and worth to projects that do not belong to them, but of which, from their situation, people would think they ought to have been the authors. *Clerville* repaired to Languedoc, saw *Andreossy,* and accompanied him to all the places through which it was intended that the canal should pass; and the latter, with the unsuspecting confidence of youth, disclosed his project. *Clerville* demanded a copy of it, and employed him to draw up an estimate of the expence. His labours terminated in 1664, were confided in the following year to the Commissary-general, and enabled him to form his first estimate of 1666, which he presented to the king, without mentioning either the author of the project or M. *Riquet.*'

Clerville being a man of power and credit, *F. Andreossy* was under the necessity of keeping terms with him; and, some difficulties having arisen concerning the execution of the plan, he formed a new project more extensive than the first; and which would have been secure from all blame and criticism, had not *Riquet* desired him to make the canal pass through Beziers; where, according to the proper expression of our author, *he happened to be born.*

Colbert still insisted that the plan, &c. should pass through the hands of the Chevalier *Clerville*; and *Andreossy* was now convinced that, if he intrusted it to him, the honour of the work when performed would be reserved for the Commissary-general, the project for the contractor, and that his lot would be the fatigue of the execution, after having first demonstrated its possibility. What was to be done? In imitation of the statuary, who mutilated one of his most exquisite performances in order to have an opportunity of afterward demonstrating that he had executed it, *Andreossy* split his project;—he made known only the first part, and left the second, according to his own expression, to the *prudence* and *knowlege of the Chevalier de Clerville.* The Commissary-general, thus abandoned to his own resources, surveyed the ground, and presented a plan, a miserable one, which proved him to be ignorant of the first principles of navigable canals.

Having acquired some partisans at court, *Riquet* accepted the clauses contained in the estimate of M. *Clerville*, with the express condition *that he might change the route of the canal, during its execution, if he thought it necessary.* The point was now gained, the project of *Clerville* fell to the ground, the whole plan of *Andreossy* was put in execution, and the canal of Languedoc, the admiration of Europe, was constructed. *Riquet* died in 1680, before the canal was completed; and his coadjutor directed its construction till the day of his death, which happened on the 3d of June 1688. It appears that this event was accelerated by chagrin. The family of *Riquet*, having suddenly arrived at wealth and distinction through the genius and labours of a foreigner *, felt the burthen of gratitude too heavy for them, and threw it entirely from their shoulders; and *Andreossy*, neglected and forgotten, saw the phantom of renown disappear, and tasted not the fruit of thirty years of meditation and labour.

To prove that *Andreossy* was really the projector and author of the junction between the ocean and the Mediterranean, the writer of this volume has brought forwards several documents and testimonies; the most important of which, in our opinion,

* *Andreossy*'s father was a Senator of Lucca, in Italy.

is

is the "Extract from the memoirs concerning the construction of the royal canal of communication between the two seas, in Languedoc, by *F. Andreossy*, 1675." This piece bears strong internal evidence of *Andreossy* being the author of the project; he speaks as if the fact never had been doubted, nor was likely to be doubted; and the General vouches for the authenticity of these memoirs, which are in manuscript. A second strong proof is contained in his epistle dedicatory of the chart of the junction of the two seas to Louis XIV.; which was published in 1669, eleven years before the death of *Riquet*, who never openly contradicted any statement of this chart, in which *Andreossy* plainly speaks of himself as the original projector of the canal.—In support of the same opinion, many other authorities are quoted, and some contradictory evidences controverted; and we think that, if the whole matter be fairly weighed and examined, the General must be allowed to have made out his point.

The faculty of judging and of adopting is more common, and of a lower order, than the power of inventing: yet, if the first praise be due to *Andreossy*, we must applaud and admire the acuteness, judgment, and zeal, which *Riquet* exhibited in comprehending and fostering the vast plan of the canal of Languedoc. He seems to have been well described by his coadjutor *Andreossy*;—"Although endowed with a penetrating and active mind, which quickly determined in favour of any thing that was true, his very advanced age, and his education which was totally adverse to any thing that could be called science, for ever prevented him from being the original institutor of a great undertaking: but there remained to him the sweet and tranquil pleasure of being useful to his country; and in this hope it was that he exerted all his power, and risked his whole fortune, for the success of a project in which every one had hitherto been baffled."

A perusal of the present treatise, we think and hope, has added to our stock of information: not so much by its mere enumeration of facts and detail of particular circumstances, as by the comprehensive views, sage maxims, and philosophical truths, with which the writer has variegated and enriched it. It has also afforded considerable entertainment, although several of the particulars are to us uninteresting: not that such particulars are useless, for whoever would survey and understand the great work of *F. Andreossy*, in all its several contrivances, artifices, and machines, ought to carry in his hand this publication of his descendant and namesake. The volume, in its statement of facts, we presume to be accurate: in its general style and fabrication, it bears testimony to the clear, learned, and enlightened mind of its author.

ART. II. *Mémoires sur l'Egypte*, &c.; *i. e.* Memoirs concerning Egypt.

[*Article concluded from the last Appendix.*]

IN resuming our account of this work, and turning our attention to the 4th volume, we are first presented with a summary of the labours of the Institute, and then arrive at a memoir intitled *General Considerations on the Agriculture of Egypt, and on the ameliorations of which it is susceptible.* By M. L. REYNIER.—This interesting and amusing paper descants on the Physical State of Egypt, its Soil, Atmosphere, Political State, Usual Modes of Culture, General Culture of the inundated Lands, of those which are artificially irrigated, the Course of Crops, Exportation, the Extension of which certain Branches of Culture are capable; the Degeneration of Plants in Egypt, on Trees, and their Influence on the Fertility of the Country. We cannot be expected to comment on all these particulars: but, from the abilities of the author, and his solicitude to obtain accurate information, they may be deemed worthy of notice. Nothing in Europe resembles the physical constitution of Egypt; the upper part of which may be described as a long valley from four leagues to one wide, surrounded by deserts, and with a river traversing it longitudinally, subject to periodical overflowings. Rain scarcely ever falls in Egypt. Cairo is seldom visited by more than four or five showers in a year, which rarely last more than two hours, and are unaccompanied by thunder. In Upper Egypt, only one or at most two showers occur during the year: but in those parts which border on the sea, such as Alexandria and Damietta, rains are more frequent. The inundations supply the place of rain; which, so far from being anxiously desired by the Egyptian farmer, is deprecated as an evil. It is a general opinion that showers are prejudicial to the corn, by encouraging the growth of weeds; and the observations of the author incline him to believe this notion to be not altogether unfounded. Of the winds of Egypt, we extract the following account:

'The winds are tolerably regular during the months of May, June, July, and August; generally blowing, almost without any intermission, from the North, and from North to East. During the day, this wind blows with a sky unobscured by a cloud, or even by the least haziness: but, as soon as the sun is set, and the atmosphere has cooled, the clouds condense and roll with great velocity from N. to S. till the following morning after the rising of the sun, when the heat rarefies them again. The decrease of the Nile, which happens generally every year in the month of October, is accompanied by intermitting winds, from the N., with intervals of calms; and owing to those calms the decrease becomes irregular, because, the N. wind

wind blowing against the torrent and keeping it back, the fall is thus obstructed, and assumes at times the appearance of a tempestuous swell; while the calms and some light airs from the S.E. aid the decrease of the river by the pressure of its waters on those of the sea. – The winds are variable during the winter months: the atmosphere is free from clouds; nothing impedes the influence of the sun-beams; and vegetation, then in its full vigour, absorbs all evaporations; so that, excepting the abundant dews and some occasional mists which prevail in the morning, nothing obstructs the transparency of the air.

'The country changes its appearance at the approach of the vernal Equinox: the burning S. winds then begin to blow: but, fortunately, they seldom last above three days, and some intervals of calm diminish their destructive effects.'

The author greatly laments that he had not an hygrometer to ascertain the degree of dryness, nor an electrometer to measure the electrical state of the atmosphere. Deprived of those instruments,—for to our surprize he says, (but can it be a fact?) that none of the literati who went to Egypt had taken any with them,—he can offer only some general observations on the effects of this wind; and he refers the reader to the frightful description given of it by Bruce, in the narrative of his return to Egypt through the Desert. He adds that he has often noticed the same symptoms, particularly once at midnight, with M. *Nectoux*; and though such events occur but seldom, yet on that day branches of the sycamore, at least two feet in diameter, were wrested off and split in pieces; and the atmosphere, inflamed to a burning red appearance, reminded them of the terrible scenes of the Desert.

'As soon as this South wind (which is called *Khamsin* in Egypt, *Samiel* in Arabia, and *Seimoun* (poison) in the Desert,) begins to blow, the atmosphere becomes cloudy. Sometimes it is coloured by a purple tint, more or less vivid; the elasticity of the air ceases, and is followed by a dry and burning heat, accompanied by whirlwinds, which succeed one another at intervals.—This state of the atmosphere seldom lasts above three days: when the wind blows but slightly, it causes a general indisposition in all animated beings: but it occasions serious illness, and even death, if its intensity increases. This was the case at the time of the siege of Cairo, after the battle of Heliopolis, when a caravan, going to Suez, lost almost all its horses and camels; and not long ago, prior to the convention of Gizeh, several camels, carrying various articles to the citadel, perished before their arrival. The army met with numberless cases of this nature in Upper Egypt. Vegetables suffer even more than animals from this wind: the first gusts of which always bring on the hour of maturity, or rather of desiccation: which takes place without altering the state of the grain if it happens when the corn is nearly ripe, and then the harvest is good: but whenever these gusts come

come before the vegetation of the corn is complete, a premature dryness is the consequence; and the produce of the harvest is often diminished two thirds. This plague not only dries up the annual plants before the natural period of their maturity, but whole acres of sugar canes are frequently burned up by it, notwithstanding the constant application of water.'

The author concludes this paper with recommending the plantation of trees in Egypt; observing that the present want of wood, even for farming implements, obstructs the improvement of the country.

Of the Caravans which arrive in Egypt from the Kingdom of Darfûr: with an Account of the Places through which they pass, and of the Trade in Slaves and other valuable Merchandise. By M. J. Lapanouse.—The interesting nature of these caravans, their discipline, order of march, encampment, and mode of defence against the plundering Arabs, are here detailed; and the various caravans which arrive in Egypt from different countries are enumerated. The most considerable, however, is that of Darfûr; which is sometimes composed, according to this memoir, of 12,000 slaves and 15,000 camels carrying a prodigious quantity of merchandise: but compare a former memoir, Rev. Vol. xxxix. p. 520. Among the articles of commerce not specified in that paper, is the seed of a plant (*Schisme*) employed in the cure of the ophthalmia and other diseases. Of the camels, one third of the number is generally assigned for the conveyance of water, one fourth for the provisions, and only one eighth for the merchandise. An itinerary is subjoined of the route from Darfûr, which passes through a place called *Selima*, from its having the vestiges, as it is said, of a palace of the greatest antiquity, once belonging to Selima, Pharaoh's daughter: but M. Lapanouse very shrewdly remarks that he could not conjecture the motive which could induce this princess to isolate herself on a spot so distant from Cairo, the usual residence of the sovereigns.

Duties are imposed by government on the caravans; 4 sequins (17 liv. 2 sols. 9 den. $\frac{1}{9}$) are paid for each slave, and 2 sequins (8l. 11s. 4d. $\frac{9}{14}$) for each camel. The cachef has also a right to 9 medins (6 sous, 5 den. $\frac{1}{3}$) for each slave, and 4 medins (2s. 10 den. $\frac{1}{7}$) for each camel.

Memoir on the Caravans coming from the Kingdom of Sennâr, and on their Route: with an explanatory Detail of the several Objects of Commerce which they carry, and a topographical Account of that Country and its Government. By the Same.—Sennâr is bounded by Darfûr on the west, by Abyssinia on the south, and on the east by the Red Sea. The caravans are not so considerable as those which come from Darfûr; consisting of only 4 or 500 camels.

camels: but the articles of commerce brought by the two caravans are nearly the same. If the slaves from Sennâr, however, are fewer in number, they are more esteemed; they are of two kinds, viz. Black, and Mulattoes of a copper colour, which are superior in form and features to the Negroes. A succinct history is given of each article of commerce; and a description of the hunting of the Elephant, of the Ostrich, of the Hippopotamus, and of the Civet, is to be found under the heads, Elephants' teeth, Ostrich feathers, Leather for shields, and Musk.

Memoir on the Trade in Negroes at Cairo, and on the Maladies to which they are subject on their Arrival. By M. LOUIS FRANK, Physician to the Army of the East.—Certain particulars of the inhuman treatment of Negroe slaves are detailed in this paper, which delicacy prohibits us from transcribing. From these we turn with disgust and horror, to smile at accounts of Negroes who are Anthropophagi, and are known (how would Lord Monboddo have rejoiced at the discovery, had he been alive!) by a little tail or prolongation of the *os coccygis*, which Ghellabis, or slave-dealers, extirpate whenever they discover it. What a pity it is that this curious report wants confirmation!—The diseases to which Negroes are subject are, catarrhs, ophthalmies, small-pox, diarrhœas, dysenteries, the plague, the dracunculi or guinea worm, and the lues; which last they are said to bring from their own country.

Memoir on the Plague observed in Egypt during the Years 7, 8, and 9. By M. GÜETAN SOTIRA, Physician to the Army.—After some preliminary though irrelevant remarks, the following questions are proposed for examination: What is the plague? What is its origin? What methods are to be taken to cure or prevent this evil?—As the author adduces the result of experience to elucidate these important inquiries, his memoir merits the perusal of the medical profession. Passing the first two queries, we shall concisely notice the answer to the last. M. SOTIRA frankly owns that he is acquainted with no specific remedy for this dreadful malady: but he informs us that General *Menou* and another Frenchman were cured by taking, every quarter of an hour, 20 drops of Hoffmann's mineral anodyne liquor, on feeling the first symptoms of attack. Bleeding is recommended under certain circumstances: but the oily friction so much extolled by the English Consul, Mr. Baldwin, is reprobated. To those who were in a weak state, wine, in small doses often repeated, was found singularly beneficial: but in prescribing camphor, opium, and sal ammoniac mixed together, the author found his mistake. In the rules for guarding against infection, nothing very new occurs.

Extract

Extract from the Journal of General VIAL *during the Campaign in Syria in the 7th Year.*—We have here an account of *Sour* (the antient Tyre) and its vicinity, in which General VIAL compliments the accuracy of *Volney*'s description of this region.

Memoir on the antient Limits of the Red Sea, and on certain Parts of the Isthmus of Suez and of the Valley of Egarement. By M. DUBOIS AYMÉ, Engineer.—This paper, which is judiciously illustrated by an annexed chart, should have followed that of M. GERARD inserted in vol. iii. To the north of Suez, the author discovered what he supposes to be the remains of the antient canal which united the Red Sea with the Nile.—Part of this memoir is employed in illustrating the geography of the Pentateuch. M. AYMÉ is led to conclude that Suez occupies the site of the antient Arsinoë;—from the distance of the ruins of Aboukéchid from Clysma, which was on the same shore with Arsinoë, he infers that this must have been the city of Hieropolis;—and as the Septuagint in Gen. iv. 6. 28, substitutes Ηρώων πολιν for the proper name *Goshen*, and γῆν Ραμισσῆ for "the land of Goshen," he takes it for granted that this country, which the Israelites occupied in Egypt, could be no other than what is now called the Valley of Sebabiahr. The next object is to ascertain the route which the Israelites pursued in quitting Egypt; a task which he undertakes; and he is confident that the passage of the Red Sea must have been near to Suez, where it is fordable at low water, and where all that is recorded to have happened on this spot, in the book of Exodus, might have taken place by natural means, without the intervention of a miracle.

Meteorological Observations made at Cairo during the first six Months of the Year 9. By M. NOUET.

Necrological Tables of Cairo, including Old Cairo and Boulac, during the Years 7, 8, and 9. By M. R. DESGENETTES.

The former of these papers gives the height of the mercury every day at sun-rise in Reaumur's thermometer; and the latter contains monthly tables of mortality at Cairo. The return is not complete: but, in the general table, the deaths for the year 7 are given at 5263, for the year 8 at 5895, and for the year 9 at 9854.

Memoir on the Physical and Medical Topography of Malta, followed by a History of the Maladies which prevailed among the French Troops in that City, towards the End of the Year 6, *and during the Years* 7 *and* 8. By M. ROBERT, Chief Physician to the Military Hospitals at Cairo.—M. ROBERT sailed with *Bonaparte* from Toulon, was left with the French troops at Malta on its surrender

surrender to the French, and continued there during the whole of the siege and blockade by our forces. His opportunities for observation, therefore, were considerable; and the composition of this medical report formed his amusement during the siege. It is divided into two parts, each containing several sections.—Part 1. includes a description of the island and city of Malta, the influence of general physical causes on health, the consideration of those complaints which arise from the climate of Malta, with their treatment, and the causes of the salubrity and insalubrity of the city of Malta. In this last section, we find a description of the hospital of Malta, on which the highest praise is bestowed for order, cleanliness, and attention to the patients. All the vessels, we are told, were of silver.—Part 2. contains a history of diseases, compiled from the author's official journal. To the table of mortality is subjoined, under the head of reflections, the following information;—that in less than two years, 521 died out of 3,521 sick persons; 300 of them with the scurvy, and the rest with consumptions and diarrhœas:—that in the two years of the blockade, each sick person received one ounce of beef or mutton daily during the first year; the same quantity of the flesh of the horse, ass, or mule, during the second; and that the other food was rice, French beans, fish, and eggs, but that the latter, as well as wine, were very scarce. These particulars are stated to account for the great mortality.

The memoirs in this work ought to have been better arranged; and those which relate to the same subject should have been printed together. We suppose, however, that eagerness to communicate them to the public superseded the niceties of editorship.

ART. III. *Traité des Maladies Goutteuses; i. e.* A Treatise on Gouty Disorders. By P. J. BARTHEZ. 8vo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1802. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 14s. sewed.

As this work comes from an author of celebrity, we have perused it with attention, and with an earnest desire to participate in the new views of theory and practice which are liberally promised in the preface. Our expectations have not, indeed, been fully gratified: but we must acknowlege that the collection of facts is copious, and that some new, bold, and decisive modes of practice are recommended, which will require the sanction of undoubted experience before they can be generally adopted.

The size of Dr. BARTHEZ's dissertation is considerably increased in consequence of his having comprehended rheumatism among gouty complaints: which we are inclined to think

think was incorrect; and we should almost have doubted whether the author had formed a very precise idea of the nature of Gout, if he had not displayed, in the course of his treatise, an acquaintance with all its phænomena. The developement of the general plan of the work is incumbered with many repetitions; and Dr. B. has assumed the existence of some principles which will not be readily admitted by English physicians. He supposes, for example, a principle which retains the muscular parts in their appropriate situation; or, as he denominates it, *situation fixée*, independently of the power of irritability. Such theories add much to the weight of our shelves, and nothing to our knowlege of nature.

In conformity with this style of reasoning, Dr. B. places the proximate cause of the Gout in a *specific gouty state* of the habit; a dogma which he professes to have found very useful in directing his practice, but from which we cannot deduce one applicable conclusion. We are rather disposed to join with Dr. Cullen, in reprobating the employment of the term specific, either in pathology or therapeutics, excepting when it is used instead of characteristic. The present author has indeed attempted to support his doctrine of specific disease, by citing the specific efficacy of some remedies for Gout, among which he particularizes aconite. He informs us that he has given great relief by small doses of this substance, in gouty and rheumatic cases; and gladly would we record that the opprobrium of medicine was thus removed: but we fear that these favourable reports do not correspond with general experience. Dr. B., however, concludes this part of the subject by asserting that 'the specific state of gouty affection is thus proved by the *singular success* of specific remedies.' If this be correct, we must allow that they manage THESE THINGS better in France;—for too surely we cannot cure gout in England.

We proceed, therefore, with all humility, to Dr. BARTHEZ's explanation of the gouty state of the blood; and we learn it to be, 'a vice in its mixture, which prevents, in different degrees, the natural formation of its excrementitious humours; so that these humours, being more or less altered, undergo a spontaneous decomposition, which causes the earthy substance to predominate in them.' We are not conscious of having derived much additional knowlege of Gout, from this laboured definition. The author has insisted, at some length, on the discharge of calcareous matter which has been observed to take place through different emunctories, previous to an attack of gout: but the old theories of arthritic acrimony were founded on similar appearances, and were justly rejected on

the decay of the humoral pathology. If gouty paroxysms depended on the evolution of calcareous matter, they would be relieved by its discharge; which does not appear to be the case from Dr. B.'s own statements, since he observes that the calcareous evacuation sometimes precedes a fit of gout. Greater attention is due to an observation of M. *Berthollet*, introduced by the author, that the quantity of phosphoric acid, contained in the urine of persons subject to gout, is less than natural during the intervals of the disease, and increases on the accession of the paroxysm.

In addition to the causes of Gout already enumerated, M. BARTHEZ deems it necessary to add debility in the parts subject to gouty attacks; and these parts, he says, are the periosteum, the capsular ligaments, and the insertions of the tendons in the bones of the extremities. Then, finding that fatigue produces debility, he proceeds to shew that, of all the limbs, the feet,—and, of all parts of the feet, the great toes,—are most harassed, and sustain the most pressure. He then endeavours to account for the particular symptoms of regular gout, on the old theory of the deposition of gouty matter in the articulations; a theory so completely exploded in this country, that we shall not occupy the reader's time with objections to it. We feel ourselves the more warranted in passing over this portion of the work, because we do not perceive that the author's *specific* opinion has led him to the adoption of any new mode of practice. His directions for the management of patients, on the accession of regular gout, are judicious: but they differ in some respects from the plan followed by the most respectable physicians of the present day. From this observation we except only the writings of the venerable Dr. Heberden, which we have lately had occasion to review *, in which he proposed the bold idea of cutting short the gouty paroxysm by powerful topical applications. Dr. BARTHEZ advises the free application of leeches to the gouty swelling; and he hints that the effect of this remedy will be found very decided and extensive, if the evacuations be sufficiently large, and frequently repeated.

Diaphoretics are also recommended during the paroxysm: but purgatives, he thinks, should be cautiously employed. The efficacy of cold water, used as common drink, in mitigating the pain of the fit, is admitted, with proper restrictions.

The practice of applying cold water to the inflamed part, which we quoted on Dr. Harvey's authority from Dr. Heber-

* See M. R. for January last.

den's

den's Commentaries, is here justified by the recommendation of Hippocrates, Galen, and other eminent writers. Dr. B. has also mentioned a case of this nature, which we shall relate, as deserving the reader's attention.—In an attack of the gout, M. *Loubet*, having his feet affected with an erysipelatous inflammation and extreme pain, determined to put his lower extremities into cold water, where he retained them for some time. After having them wiped, he went to bed, and fell into a sound sleep. He awaked in a profuse perspiration, which continued fifteen hours; and on the succeeding day he found himself perfectly freed from pain and lameness.—The author observes, very judiciously, that this remedy can prove useful only after the gouty inflammation and swelling have been completely formed; and that it may produce great danger, if it be applied while the determination to the joint is taking place. We shall leave our readers to compare these suggestions with the practice of Harvey; with merely this additional observation, that our most cautious practitioners cannot have a more formidable idea of cold bathing in the gout, than the whole faculty entertained thirty years ago respecting the cold bath in fevers, which is now admitted as an established remedy of superior efficacy.

The tepid-bath and vapour-bath are here mentioned as powerful means of relief in advanced stages of the paroxysm. The external application of opium, with the view of moderating pain, is strongly condemned, from experience: the internal use of this medicine ought to be confined, according to the author, to cases of extreme watchfulness; and he recommends it to be joined with diaphoretics, particularly in the form of Dover's powder. This class of remedies is directed to remove the pain of a gouty paroxysm; and the author next adverts to the symptomatic fever, which he says was first well described by Dr. Gray. According to Dr. B. it has seven exacerbations, and observes somewhat of a tertian type. He regards it as depuratory; and we are again incumbered with obsolete theories, where we could have wished to see the author's own vigorous sense exerted in the observation of facts. The directions which he has compiled for the treatment of this fever, however, are useful; and, allowing for the usual differences between English and French practice, they are judicious.

The writer next discusses gouty paroxysms irregularly prolonged. He treats copiously of the use of purgatives in this state of the complaint, and justly condemns the use of drastic purges inculcated by the old writers. He recommends diaphoretics, particularly sulphur; which idea will not be new to many of our medical readers, who must be acquainted with the effect of sulphur-whey in moderating gouty pains. Sti-

mulating diuretics are also said to possess considerable power, in this stage of the disease; and among these, the burdock, *immortalized* in this country by Dr. Hill, is much praised,—but surely with little reason.—Other remedies are mentioned as alteratives, which seem to be of very doubtful efficacy. Those which Dr. BARTHEZ distinguishes as specifics in gout are, cicuta, belladonna, and especially aconite. Several cases are mentioned to this effect: but they are not sufficiently numerous to produce conviction. These medicines have not been overlooked by practitioners in this country, but their power has never yet been established.

Soap is also recommended internally, and the *saponaria* in course; which, the Doctor adds, however, is both a diuretic and diaphoretic. Seneka is also mentioned in high terms of approbation. It is evident that the power of these medicines is chiefly referred to their property as stimulants.

In treating of stimulating topical applications to joints affected with gout irregularly prolonged, blisters and rubifacients are indicated. Peruvian bark, and chalybeates, are directed to remove the debility in which these attacks leave the patient. Many observations are added, respecting the treatment of topical disorders produced by the gout, but we find nothing particularly interesting in them.—Warm water, applied externally, in the form of different mineral waters, appears to be the principal remedy for these inconveniences.

We then proceed to a chapter on the prevention of the return of gouty paroxysms. Besides the usual cautions concerning regimen, the use of the cold bath is enjoined.

Dr. BARTHEZ recommends a sparing use of animal food, and abstinence from wine, as the principal means of prevention. His remarks on milk diet are very judicious: but, from the restrictions with which he combines them, they can hardly find a place here. He is an enemy to the extreme of low diet; and he very properly directs that particular regard should be paid to the age and habit of the patient, and to the sensible effects of his regimen.

Respecting the use of remedies, to prevent the return of gout, he observes that, in plethoric habits, bleeding at stated times has been found a preservative. He acknowleges, however, that blood-letting at the approach of gout has proved fatal. Scarification, or leeches, he supposes to be very safe means of prevention, as well as issues.—The necessity of obviating costiveness is duly inculcated.

Under the head of bitters and aromatics which may be employed to prevent the return of gout, as well as in other parts of the book, Dr. B. has perhaps paid too much regard to

some names, no longer considered as authorities: his general ideas, however, are good.

In discussing the use of stomachic medicines as preventives, the author mentions the composition known in this country by the name of the Portland-powder; and, in the Paris Dispensary, by that of the *pulvis arthriticus*. He seems to impute the same bad effects to it, which Dr. Cullen mentions: but he adds that Boerhaave had observed a power in the *aristolochia rotunda*, of shortening the gout. He warns the patient against a long-continued use of any kind of bitters.

Several observations follow, respecting the consecutive gout, or the symptoms occasionally produced after gout in the articulations. In some complications, which the author has noticed, he will probably be thought to have attributed rather too much influence to gout. He supposes the venereal disease to produce a species of gout, peculiarly marked by those symptoms which we term nervous; and for this he recommends aconite as a remedy, in conjunction with sudorifics.

In the second Book, Dr. B. treats of rheumatism; and he remarks very justly, among other diagnostics, that the seat of rheumatism is in the muscles, or tendinous aponeuroses. In this part of the work, however, we meet with less interesting matter than in the former. The history of the disease is indeed clear and comprehensive: but it has been too well recited by former writers to leave any other merit for an author of the present day, than that of exact and judicious compilation.

Dr. B. explains the peculiar nature of rheumatic inflammation, by recurring to the *force of fixed situation* in the muscles affected. This notion does not contribute much to relieve perplexity.—In treating of the inflammatory crust of the blood drawn in this disease, he does not appear to be acquainted with Mr. Hewson's experiments; and his theory of the phænomenon is very unsatisfactory.

When the author mentions blood-letting, as a principal remedy in acute rheumatism, we were surprized to find him directing that it should be at first *revulsive*, and afterward *derivative*: for we had supposed that the French physicians had dropped these ridiculous distinctions. After venesections, he properly recommends purgatives and diaphoretics. In the advanced stages of the disease, he has found the junction of opium with camphor extremely useful: he mentions, also, with due praise, Dover's powder; and he recommends a formula, from the *Pharmacopœia Pauperum* of Prague, in which opium is combined with emetic tartar, and the root of wild valerian.

Dr. B. seems inclined to give stimulating sudorifics, such as the tincture of guaiacum, in acute rheumatism, on the authority

thority of Lobb and some other writers. We do not find, in this part, any reference to the practice of giving Peruvian bark in acute rheumatism, which has been pursued for several years by eminent medical men in London.—The multitude of quotations which the author makes in every chapter, and the analyses of practical works which he often introduces, render it very difficult to give a complete view of his opinions on this subject.

Respecting the cure of chronic rheumatism, M. BARTHEZ is materially less decided than we expected. He mentions the balsam of guaiacum as a *promising* remedy, and speaks of Dover's powder and the junction of calomel with opium, as remedies which *have been used with success in London.* We have had more than one occasion for observing, with regret, that the French nation is very imperfectly acquainted with the real state of our literature; and this deficiency appears on the present occasion very remarkably: since the modes of practice, to which we allude, have been generally established in this country for many years past.

The Doctor has, however, made some compensation in his account of the efficacy of mercurial frictions in chronic rheumatism, the use of which he has traced to the original writers.

Peruvian bark and cold bathing are advised, to prevent relapses; in which we agree with the author: but we cannot join in his encomium on aconite, belladonna, cicuta, and other plants of similar properties.

In treating of the topical remedies of acute rheumatism, we are told that the camphorated oil is preferable to the camphorated spirit: but we apprehend that a solution of camphor in spirit of turpentine, or in ether, is greatly superior in power to both.—We cannot pretend to follow Dr. B. through his accumulated list of topical remedies; nor, indeed, do we deem it necessary, because most of them are recommended on the credit of well-known authors, and little is advanced on this writer's own authority. Perhaps, if the mass of evidence were carefully analysed, it would appear that guaiacum, Dover's powder, mercury, and opium, are the only well-established internal remedies; and that camphor joined with stimulants, electricity, and warm bathing, are the chief external applications worthy of notice. Since the late experiments on Galvanism, the action of electricity on the human system will probably become a more general object of attention; especially if new modes of applying it with increased effect should be suggested in the progress of this curious inquiry. We have, indeed, every thing to learn respecting a remedy like electricity, which sometimes surpasses in its effects our most sanguine

hopes, and too frequently disappoints expectations apparently well-founded. The use of the actual cautery, either in the form of moxa or match-paper, is now, we suppose, entirely laid aside by practitioners in this country. Dr. BARTHEZ has bestowed more space on the consideration of this method than we should have expected: but he depends much on the authority of M. *Pouteau*. We apprehend that the action of the stimulants already mentioned, or of the common rubifacients, may be rendered sufficiently strong for any useful purpose.

The chapter on Lumbago contains a collection of curious facts relating to that disease: but we cannot entirely agree with the author in his theory, which is rather too refined for common use. Neither do we coincide with him in recommending internal medicines for the cure of lumbago: which is soonest dissipated by the external application of warm stimulants. He mentions a cure performed by his favourite arnica, in fourteen days: this we should reckon as no cure: we believe that the camphorated spirit of turpentine (which is the basis of Home's liniment) generally cures the patient in two or three days.

The history of Sciatica is well detailed, with the exception of the connection fancied by the author to exist between this disease and gout. Every thing hitherto known respecting the method of cure is laid before the reader, but nothing here is added. Dr. B. has been very industrious in accumulating authorities for the use of the actual cautery. A great part of his account of Sciatica, properly so called, is taken from the work of Cotunnius; and he depends much, with this writer, on the application of blisters in the course of the Sciatic nerve. The inaction of the muscles, which sometimes takes place after severe attacks of sciatica, is not owing, according to Dr. BARTHEZ, to a paralytic tendency, but to *tonic fixation* of the muscular fibres; a phrase which we suppose is equivalent to the old term, rigidity. He has taken occasion to digress to the curvature of the spine, and to attack Mr. Pott's opinions on that subject, but (we think) without much justice; nor does he ascribe to Mr. Pott's mode of treatment the degree of success which experience has proved to attend it.

When considering rheumatic inflammation of the viscera, we must confess that the author's arrangement appears exceedingly arbitrary; and he has contrived to bring even many cases of pneumonic inflammation under this head.

In what he styles rheumatic inflammation, the Doctor relies much on the use of blisters: but he says that they are contra-indicated in cases of genuine pneumonic inflammation. In this latter assertion, we think that he is by no means correct; our experience is in direct opposition to it.

In

For chronic pains of the stomach and other viscera, which the author refers to a rheumatic cause, he recommends very strongly arnica and dulcamara, two remedies in favour of which he seems to be warmly prejudiced.

In the rheumatic tooth-ach, he advises, among other remedies, the exposure of the pained parts to the steam of boiling water.

Dr. B. next proceeds to treat of diseases which are essentially gouty, though unaccompanied by regular attacks of either gout or rheumatism. The first of these is a gouty cachexy; the second, acute gouty inflammation of the viscera; and the third, chronic gouty inflammation of the viscera. The second species is termed by Dr. Cullen the misplaced gout; the third, the atonic gout. In violent pains of the stomach, produced by atonic gout, Dr. B. has succeeded by persevering in the use of aconite.

The third Book relates to the internal gout, or affections of the viscera connected with regular gout. Many of these are cases of retrocedent gout, which the author explains according to his own theory of a gouty matter circulated with the blood, and deposited on different parts. In speaking of anomalous gout, he disapproves the plan of forcing it towards the extremities by tonic and stimulant remedies, excepting in cases of great debility: but he recommends, in some instances, bleeding in the foot, emetics, purgatives, and diaphoretics; especially James's powder.—The vapour-bath is mentioned as a powerful auxiliary. The use of cordials and opiates is explained, with the necessary restrictions; and the topical application of stimulants is mentioned, with the cases in which relaxing and emollient applications are preferable.—In retrocedent gout, the author disapproves the indiscriminate use of stimulants, and he advises purgatives and diaphoretics.

Dr. B. gives a good view of the history and treatment of gout in the stomach. His information on this subject is accurate and copious; and his distinction between the irritable spasms of the stomach, and those which arise from debility, deserves particular attention. It would far exceed our limits, however, to pursue his extensive investigation of this part of the disease. He may be thought sometimes too subtile: but an anxiety to be accurate will always be pardoned by inquirers after truth. In gout of the stomach, accompanied with irritation, and an inflammatory tendency, castor oil, or other gentle laxatives, and opiates, are recommended. In gouty diarrhœa, astringents must be combined with opiates. Respecting gouty dysentery, the author's observations seem to relate to the general practice in dysenteric complaints.—A similar remark may be

made with regard to the description of chronic gout in the stomach and intestines; which, in fact, comprizes all the symptoms of chronic weakness of those organs, however induced, and the method of cure is perfectly analogous.

In gouty nephritis, opiates are advised in the acute, and diuretics in the chronic state.

Some very curious and interesting remarks occur on the affections of the genital parts in both sexes, especially on the arthritic gonorrhœa: but here we must forbear to enlarge; and we shall only observe that, in some cases in which the prostate gland was in a state of violent irritation, Dr. Barthez afforded much relief by the free and repeated application of leeches to the perinæum.

The directions concerning gouty catarrh, though copious, contain nothing exclusively applicable to gout. In gouty peripneumony, the author disapproves repeated bleedings, and advises particularly to bleed in the foot, and to apply blisters to the legs. As internal remedies, he recommends seneka and dulcamara.

On gouty consumption and asthma, we meet with nothing which merits particular notice. Dr. B. has very improperly classed the angina pectoris under gouty asthma, a complaint with which the former has certainly no connexion. It appears, indeed, that he has never seen a well-marked case of this disease.

We are next presented with an enumeration of several diseases which the author treats as depending occasionally on gout, though in the treatment of them the supposed alliance with that disorder makes little difference. We must, however, except one instance, in which we strongly disapprove the practice recommended by Dr. B.;—we refer to his injunction of bleeding in gouty apoplexy; because the indiscriminate use of the lancet in such cases would be extremely dangerous. Respecting the other remedies for this complaint, his directions are judicious. He has made one important remark; that the gouty apoplexy is sometimes periodical, observing the quartan type, for example; and that, under such circumstances, Peruvian bark may become necessary.—In the gouty palsy, besides the usual stimulating medicines, Dr. B. advises that rubifacients should be applied, in the hope of producing gout in the extremities.—Our limits do not allow us to enter into the particulars of his account of other complications of gout, with which the volume concludes.

We cannot take leave of this important though rather tedious publication, without expressing a wish that it may be introduced to English readers by a judicious abstract. If some

of the formal discussions were omitted, and the useful facts were carefully preserved, we are persuaded that it would be found to constitute a valuable addition to the physician's library. The extensiveness of Dr. BARTHEZ's views, his great medical erudition, and his firmness in opposing fashionable prejudices, render it desirable that every practitioner should be made acquainted with this publication.

ART. IV. *Histoire Geographique*, &c.; *i. e.* The Geographical, Political, and Natural History of Sardinia. By M. AZUNI.

[*Article concluded from the last Appendix.*]

FROM the exalted strains of the patriot's prayer, we must now descend, and pass our time (rather dully) among the beasts of the field, the fowls of the air, and the fishes of the sea. With the view of displaying the natural productions of an island of which the territory, with the exception of some downs on the sea-shore and a very few rugged rocks, is adapted to the culture of the most useful and agreeable fruits of each quarter of the globe, M. AZUNI distributes, under three sections, his account of its animal, mineral, and vegetable riches.—Though we should have preferred the inverted order of these materials, we shall slightly notice them as they occur; and thus complete our report of a performance which, if far from perfect, is the most satisfactory that has appeared on a subject of unmerited neglect.

Of 398 pages of which the second volume consists, 337 are allotted to the first section. A more equal division of the subject, and a more interesting series of recital, might have been effected by the suppression of many well-known descriptions and facts which have no pointed relation to Sardinia, and by the addition of many geological and botanical details, which nothing short of actual observation can supply. In consequence of this general remark, we deem it unnecessary to treat of the first section with a diffusion of criticism proportioned to its length. Its seven chapters have for their respective titles, 1. *Of the Domestic Animals.* 2. *Of the Wild Animals.* 3. *Of some Animal Productions.* 4. *Of the Amphibious Kinds.* 5. *Of Birds.* 6. *Of Fishes.* 7. *Of the Maritime Fisheries.*

Previously to the discussion of these topics, we are informed that Sardinia possesses at least one third of the quadrupeds which inhabit Europe, without any of the noxious species. Pausanias, Solinus, and Silius Italicus, had noticed its exemption from serpents and poisonous animals:

Serpentum tellus pura ac viduata venenis.

Vico, from ignorance, or policy, adopts the vulgar tradition, which ascribes the disappearance of wolves and serpents to the intercession of St. Proto. Did not absurdity confute itself, we might remind the reader that Silius Italicus wrote two centuries before the Saint existed.

The account of the *domestic* animals commences with a description of the *wild Horses*; which roam in the deserts and forests, and which are distinguished by their diminutive but neat proportions, their pre-eminent nimbleness, and their extreme love of liberty. Seldom are they caught alive; and in general they will rather die with hunger than endure a life of servitude. A swift and generous breed of horses is, however, reared and cherished by the opulent portion of the inhabitants; and horse-racing is a frequent and favourite diversion over the whole island. Every town, and even every considerable village, gives prizes for the successful competitors; and during carnival, the owners of prime horses urge their precipitate and perilous career through the winding and sloping streets of *Sassari* and *Cagliari*, and astonish the spectators by the rapidity and variety of their equestrian feats.

Herds of small and lean cattle abound in the pasture districts. The present deficiency of wholesome provender during the winter months might be easily supplied by the introduction of artificial meadows.—*Oxen* employed in draught are made to pull by the horns.

The *Hog* fattens and multiplies in the forests of Sardinia, where the purveyors of pork for the Roman market had anciently a factory under the protection of the Emperors. In 1771, the number of individual animals included in the several herds of swine, without regard to those which were bred about houses, amounted to 152,471. Their flesh and lard are uncommonly delicate, and the hams of *Santo Lussurgio* are said by M. Azuni to be the best in Europe. The variety of hog with undivided hoofs (*sus monungulus*) occurs in the canton of *Nurra*, not far from *Sassari*.

Since *Vico* published his history, the flocks of *Sheep*, though still very numerous, have decreased. Among the rams, are frequently found some with four and even six horns. They are easily tamed, and become attached to the society of horses. As the same variety of rams prevails in Ireland, it seems unnecessary to have recourse, with Vitalis and the present author, to an Egyptian or Syrian descent.

So very numerous are the *Goats*, that an assemblage of fewer than 300 is not termed a flock.

The *Asses* are small, but strong, active, and so fleet, that their pace is as quick as a horse's trot. Among the various kinds

kinds of labour to which they are subjected, is that of turning the small corn-mills which each peasant erects in his house. Hence *mulenti* is a common Sardinian appellation for the ass. M. AZUNI justly combats the prejudice of his countrymen, who reject the introduction of the mule: but he is, we believe, at variance with fact, when he asserts that this animal is most robust and long-lived in cold latitudes.

A peculiar race of *Dogs* is obtained in Sardinia, from the grey-hound and mastiff, which unites the properties of both. Hence the same mongrel watches the house and the flock, pursues the hare, the boar, the stag, and the mouflon. Notwithstanding the multitudes of dogs which are bred on the island, the great heat of summer, and the frequent scarcity of water, cases of hydrophobia are very rare. If our information be correct, that dreadful malady is unknown in the warmest regions of Africa and America, and very seldom occurs in Constantinople, where the canine race is condemned to prowl in the streets for a precarious subsistence.—Some of the islanders ascribe their good fortune to the practice of destroying the females of the first litter, and others to the absence of the long-haired kinds of dogs, which are supposed to be more particularly liable to madness. The author insinuates that the non-existence of wolves should likewise be taken into the account.—These alleged causes, however, seem to be at best hypothetical. We are not so lost in scepticism as to assert, with some paradoxical physicians, that hydrophobia is an imaginary distemper: but we may safely affirm that it is often stated to exist on the most frivolous pretexts, and that idle reports and childish alarms are seldom quieted without the sacrifice of many innocent victims.

The chapter on wild animals presents us with little that is worthy of remark. Though *Stags* and *Fallow Deer* are very common, the Roebuck is falsely alleged to inhabit the island; and though the Martin abounds, the Polecat is unknown. The account of the *Mouflon*, an animal which seems to form the interval between the stag and the sheep, (most probably the *Ophion* of the Greeks,) is too long for our insertion; and, moreover, *Cetti* and *Buffon* had anticipated the most important observations concerning it. In his relation of the *Boccamele*, or *Donna di Muro*, an animal which perhaps constitutes the link between the weasel and the ermine, the author appears more anxious to expose the inaccuracies of *Buffon*, than to convey any distinct ideas of this rare quadruped; which seems to coincide with the *Ictis* of Aristotle.

Chapter III. would have been introduced with more propriety at the conclusion of the zoological details:—in its present

sent form, its substance may be comprized in a few words.—The large horns of the cattle are exported chiefly to Genoa and Provence: nearly one half of the raw hides have the same destination, and the other is consumed on the island. In consequence of the introduction of Spanish sheep, wool promises to form a considerable branch of trade. Of animal productions, however, the principal article of exportation is cheese; from fifty to sixty thousand quintals of the ordinary sort being annually shipped for Marseilles, Barcelona, Genoa, Civita Vecchia, and Naples. Considerable quantities of honey are produced both by the wild and domestic bee: but a large portion of it is retained for home-consumption.

Among the amphibious animals, we meet with the *Land Tortoise*, the *Fresh-water* and *Sea Turtle*, the *Stellio*, *Eft*, and *Green Lizard*, called *Tiliguerta*, and, in some parts of the island, *Tiliguetta*. *Linné*, *Gmelin*, and *Cetti* had erroneously considered this variety of nomenclature as indicative of a distinct species: but with the same propriety they might have separated the *Lanzinafenu* from the *Seps*, or *Lacerta Chalcidica*.—The *Tiligugu* may not improperly be termed the *Sardinian Lizard*.

'Its breadth, which extends two inches, is considerable when compared with its length, which measures only eight inches including the tail. It has four very short feet, each furnished with five clawed toes. Its projecting head, immediately connected with the body, is rather short, and tapers towards the extremity; is somewhat convex at the top, and flattened at the sides. The upper jaw is of the same length with the lower. The nostrils, placed at the extremity of the upper jaw, are large and oval; the tongue is pointed, heart-shaped, indented, and fleshy at the base; the gape, of a moderate width; the teeth are short, equal, blunt at the end, and straight at the sides; the eyes, placed at the bottom of the head, are distinguished by their spear-shaped pupils, brown irides, and black eye-lids; the ears, at the corners of the jaws, are large; and the neck is of the thickness and form of the body. The latter is an oblong oval, angular on the back. The tail, continuous with the back, tapers from the hind legs to the extremity, which is small and round. The fore-legs are placed at the distance of an inch from the lower end of the head; the hind-legs, at the two extremities of the abdomen, are removed 2½ inches from the fore-legs and the tip of the tail. The body and legs are covered with dark-coloured scales, studded with black and shining dots. The scales on the top of the head are large and irregular: but they are small, and resembling those of fishes, on the rest of the body. The sides, breast, and legs, are whitish. This creature lives far from water; in which it cannot exist, from the want of swimming membranes between the toes.'

From the above description, it is obvious that the Sardinian Lizard is neither of the same species with the Egyptian *Scink*, nor with the *Mabouga* of the West Indies.

The

The common eatable *Frog* is not found in the island: but its absence is compensated by swarms of the green species, which haunt the trees in summer.

Of the four kinds of *Snakes*, none are venomous; and the collared species of *Lacépède* is welcomed by the superstitious peasant as an animal of propitious augury.

The history of several of the *Birds* here enumerated receives no new illustration from the author's pen: but we meet with some pertinent strictures on *Cetti's Ricelli di Sardegna*, and occasional corrections of the hasty assertions of *Buffon*. Thus, the *small*, *cinereous*, and *sea Eagles* constantly reside on the island, and are not passengers, as the French naturalist had alleged. The bearded *Vulture*, an inhabitant of the Alps and Pyrénées, occurs likewise in Sardinia; and it appears, from *de la Pérouse's* description, to be essentially distinct from the *Griffon*, with which *Buffon* had confounded it.

It is worthy of remark that the common *Magpie* is here unknown; whereas the speckled species, a migratory bird in France, and even in Egypt, remains during the whole year, resorting to the woods and mountains in summer, and descending to the plains and approaching the habitations of man in winter. Another resident, by no means rare, is the smaller *Bustard*; which *Buffon* and *Mauduyt* would confine to France, though *Redi* had mentioned it as a native of Italy, under the appellation of *Gallina pratajuola*.

In consequence of repeated assurances that *Swallows* were to be found in a torpid state in the islet of *Asinara*, and in the neighbouring caverns of *Orosei*, M. AZUNI purposely visited those places, about the end of November, and found only clusters of benumbed Bats, which had doubtless been mistaken for Swallows.

The *Flamingo*, which arrives in flocks from Africa about the beginning of autumn, frequents lakes in the south parts of the island during six months. The *Pelican*, too, is only a bird of passage, migrating occasionally from the African coast.

From the author's notices of the ichthyology of Sardinia, we learn that great numbers of mullets are smoaked, like red herrings; and that an excellent *botargo* is prepared from their roes; which are first salted, then pressed between two boards, afterward washed, and then smoaked, or dried in the sun.

Among the rarer fishes, we remark the *Muræna*, or *Roman Eel*, the *Serpent Eel*, and the *Flat-tailed Sea-Serpent*. The *Tunny* swarms on the shores, attains to a size greatly exceeding that of the variety which frequents the coast of Provence, and weighs from 800 to 1200 lbs. *Cetti's Alalunga* resembles a very small Tunny. *Sonnini* conjectures that it is the *Thon Blanc* of

of the French, and the *Accola* of the Maltese. Though *Scomber calius* inhabits the shores of Sardinia, we do not find it noticed in the present work. Perhaps the author, with some other naturalists, considers it only as the young of the mackerel. The last mentioned fish, however, and the Anchovy are total strangers to the island. M. AZUNI conjectures that they are devoured by the immense shoals of Tunnies.

The seventh chapter is particularly deserving of attention, as it minutely describes all the operations of the Tunny fishery: but we could not render it intelligible to our readers without large extracts, and the assistance of the plates. This season of bustle and festivity lasts from May to July, and the annual capture is averaged at 52,000 tunnies, which produce nearly a million of French livres.

The coral fishery, a still more lucrative concern, is tamely abandoned to the industry of foreign adventurers: but a moderate anchorage-duty is levied on each boat, and a tax of five per cent. on the value of the commodity is paid, in money or kind, to the exchequer.

All the *Insects*, for what reason we know not, are passed in total silence.

The second division of the volume, which occupies only 28 pages, is intitled, *Of the Mineral Kingdom*: but, so far from presenting us with correct or general views of the geological structure of the island, it contains only slight notices of some of the most useful fossil substances.—The gold, mentioned by the Roman writers, is supposed to have been extracted from the high granite mountains of *Gallicia*.—Silver ores still occur in various places; and that of *Rio de Cani* gives 6 ounces in the 100 lbs.: but the mining art has never been prosecuted with steadiness or effect.—The iron ores of some districts yield 50 and even 60 per cent., without exciting the active enterprize of the inhabitants.—Veins of lead are by no means rare; and the Chevalier *de Napion* asserts that some of the richest mines of this metal, affording from 60 to 80 per cent., might be rendered extremely profitable in the course of twelve months.—Symptoms of copper, antimony, and mercury have also been traced.—The other mineral productions, which are here enumerated, are rock-crystal, cornelian, sardonyx, calcedony, agate, blood-coloured porphyry, marble, alabaster, granite, fuller's-earth, native alum, pit-coal (which emits a very offensive bituminous vapour), and pumice-stone.

Mineral baths are not wanting: but they are destitute of proper accommodation for visitors, and very little frequented.

The concluding division is prefaced by a few remarks on the extraordinary fruitfulness of the island during its subjec-

tion to Rome; and its soil, at this day, does not wholly belie its antient character. A return of 15 or 20 for 1 is reckoned a very poor crop of wheat. In the department of *Nurra*, and some districts of the *Campidano*, the farmer reckons from 60 even to 100 fold. Each plant produces several ears; and so vigorous and well proportioned is the stem, that it never sinks under its precious load. Barley, beans, lentils, &c. are not less prolific.

Many of the prime *Wines* of Sardinia may be compared to those of Spain, Cyprus, or the Canaries. The most in request is the *Nasco*, of an amber hue, very delicate flavour, and very generous quality. So abundant is the produce of the ordinary vineyards, that a considerable portion of the grapes is often lost, from the want of casks to receive their juice.

Forests of wild *Olive-trees* are condemned to feed the flames, or to perish with old age: but an oil, not inferior to that of Aix or Nice, is obtained from the cultivated kinds. Plantations of the latter have, for some time past, formed a considerable object of rural economy.

Among the *Fruit Trees*, we find the *Orange*, *Lemon*, *Citron*, *Pomegranate*, *Fig*, *Peach*, *Apricot*, *Walnut*, *Almond*, *Apple*, *Pear*, &c.

Two sorts of *Palm Tree* are mentioned, but in such a vague manner that we are somewhat at a loss to ascertain their proper designations. If *Palma Major*, which is applied to the first, be given as *Bauhin's* synonym, we may conclude that it is *Phœnix dactylifera*, or the date-tree. The other, termed *Palmizzu* by the islanders, is probably *Chamærops humilis*, or, the dwarf-fan-palm, which is not uncommon in Spain and Portugal.

Experience has proved that the *Cotton plant*, *Sugar-cane*, *Indigo*, and even *Coffee*, may be successfully cultivated in the warmer valleys.—The breeding of the silk-worm has lately occupied the attention of government: but we may be allowed to doubt whether any extensive manufactures can be successfully conducted during the present reduced state of population, and the existence of those political evils which are recorded in the first volume.—*Barilla* and *Tobacco* might form considerable articles of exportation: but their production has been checked by injudicious taxes.

In some districts near *Sassari*, an oil, fit both for the lamp and for currying, is procured from the berries of the *Pistacia Lentiscus*, or mastic-tree: yet the tree itself, so valued for the beauty of its wood, and springing up along the shores in such gay profusion, is allowed to share the same fate with the mountain olive. The *ladaniferous Cistus* is a common shrub

all

all over the island: but no attempts have been made to extract from it that valuable drug, from which it derives its specific name. Thus it is that the finest provisions of nature are intercepted by the narrow policy of man, or neglected by his ignorance; and that the earth yields her blessings in vain, if not inhabited by a free and enlightened people.

The Sardinian forests consist chiefly of the *Cork-Tree*, *Oak*, *Holm Oak*, *Fir*, and *Chesnut*. Thick, aged, and extensive woods are left untouched, while planks for common purposes are imported from Corsica and Nice.

A very meagre *Flora*, in which we meet with twenty or thirty genuine or specific names, concludes this section and the work.

The notes are numerous, and not destitute of merit; since they frequently correct the mistakes of modern, or contain apposite allusions to the notices of antient naturalists.—The plates, well engraven by *Tardieu*, of Paris, represent the male and female *Mouflon*, the *Seps*, the *Tiligugu*, and the occupations of the *Tunny-fishers*.

ART. V. *Histoire des Mathématiques*, &c.; *i. e.* A History of the Mathematics; giving an Account of the Progress of that Science from its Origin to the present Time; exhibiting a View and Developement of the principal Discoveries in all its Branches, of the Controversies which have arisen between Mathematicians, and of the most material Circumstances in their Lives. A new Edition, considerably enlarged. By J. F. MONTUCLA, of the National Institute of France. Completed and published by *Jerome de la Lande*. 4to. 4 Vols. Paris. 1802. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 4 Guineas in Boards.

THE first edition of this work, in two volumes quarto, appeared in 1758, and was noticed by us in Vol. XX. p. 374. The present impression is in bulk more than double the former: consisting of the two old volumes with considerable additions, and of two others entirely new. During a period of thirty years, M. MONTUCLA was gradually collecting materials for a new edition: but the immediate motives for its publication seem to have been the solicitation of his friend *La Lande*, and the more powerful demand of his wants; the Revolution having deprived him of his place, and, with it, of his means of support.

The composition of the last two volumes required more time, and the exercise of greater talents, than the two former: because the history of an age was to be related, in which the face of science had been completely changed. It was no easy task to state, with precision and brevity, the labours of *Euler*, *Clairaut*,

Clairaut, *D'Alembert*, *Bernouilli*, *La Place*, and *La Grange*; and to render intelligible to common readers the improvements which the analytic art and physical astronomy had received in the 18th century. In fact, it was necessary that the historian himself, if he wished to perform his task with ability, should be a profound mathematician.

Montucla did not live long enough to see this edition completed. After his decease, M. La Lande took charge of the manuscripts, and, with the assistance of friends, supplied the deficiencies of several articles. A biographical account of the author is also prefixed; which displays a life, quiet, harmless, and uniform; such as belongs to philosophers, and as would become many who cannot lay claim to that title.

Although volumes I. and II. have received considerable alterations, we shall easily be excused for not again examining them; and indeed of the two which are new, we do not purpose to enter into a particular discussion; since the matter which they contain has already, in different shapes, been before the public. Montucla has given only an abstract of that which is more fully exhibited in distinct treatises and the memoirs of learned societies; and were we, in attempting a particular examination, to occupy all the pages of the present Appendix, we could produce only the unsatisfactory abridgment of an abridgment.

Volume III. contains between 800 and 900 pages closely printed; and its first part, the 5th of the work, comprehends the history of Analysis and of Geometry, from the commencement of the 18th century. We find in it an account of nearly all that has been done relatively to the resolution of equations; the theory of curves; the enumeration of curves of the third order, as given by Newton; the organical description of curves by Maclaurin, Newton, &c.; the geometry of curved surfaces; the history of the differential calculus, resumed from the former volumes; the controversy between Newton and Leibnitz concerning its discovery; difficulties raised against it by Rolle and Berkeley; its defence undertaken by Robins, Smith, Maclaurin, Saurin, &c.; use of the differential calculus in the theory of curves; integral calculus; differential method; series, recurring, &c. as treated by De Moivre and Euler; method of increments, or of finite differences; theory of analytical functions by *La Grange*; calculation of circular and logarithmic functions; methods of eliminations of interpolation; continued fractions; calculus of variations, of partial differentials; doctrine of chances; &c.

This book is on the whole ably executed: yet, as old men, and especially old Frenchmen, have a leaning towards that foible

foible called garrulity; so the worthy historian of the mathematics sometimes dwells too long on a subject, and sometimes repeats preceding matter. In disposition, he seems to us impartial; and when partiality appears, it is to be attributed to want of information. With so vast a subject, he could not reasonably be expected to treat all its parts distinctly and profoundly; he must, of necessity, occasionally speak of books which he had never read; and he must give opinions concerning them which were due to other men. A perusal of his work confirms this idea. In his account of the discoveries of Algebra claimed by Harriot and *Descartes*, he has already been accused of favouring his countrymen: but, although we find in his latter volumes many blows aimed at the English, yet, in the discussion of the controversy between Newton and *Leibnitz*, he is just towards our countryman. He is, however, more zealous as a mathematician than as a Frenchman; for Berkeley is roughly handled: his Analyst is treated as a book of sophisms: the man who possessed "every virtue under heaven" is styled the *fougueux évêque*; and the exquisite raillery of the Analyst is transferred, contrary to all justice, to the *Philalethes Cantabrigiensis*. We can account, indeed, for this deficiency of judgment in the author; since we find his acknowlegement that, of the controversial tracts occasioned by the Analyst, Robins's work was the only one which he could procure. When the historian quits the peaceful province of simple narration for the perilous tracts of controversy and censure, he ought to be sure of his ground, and well informed of the difficulties of his undertaking; and his censure should not be the echo of another's opinion, but the formal expression of his own deliberate judgment.

We cannot say that the perusal of this part of the work has impressed us with the idea of its author being a consummate mathematician; and we have met with several inaccuracies. Speaking of the binomial theorem, he says that it is demonstrated in the *Scriptores Logarithmici*, '*de la manière la plus complète, et la plus variée*;' and again, on the question of the logarithms of negative numbers, he inclines to the opinion which has the greatest *number of suffrages in its favour*.

The second book relates the progress of the science of Optics during the 18th century. While the 336th page was under correction, MONTUCLA died, and the care of superintending the remaining part of the *History* devolved on M. *La Lande*. Not feeling himself competent to write on all the branches of mathematics, or being adverse to so much labour, the great astronomer of France sought assistance to the undertaking; and the charge of revising and completing the history of optics

was

was intrusted to M. *De Fortia*. For the reasons above stated, we must abstain from a detailed examination of this part; towards the end of which, all sorts of modern inventions are described: such as the Phantasmagoria, the Panorama, the Phloscope, the Thermolampe, &c. Perhaps it would have been better to have omitted an account of these inventions, as well as of other mechanical contrivances reported in these last volumes. It is true that they depend and are constructed on philosophical principles, but so is every instrument and machine which art employs; and we think that these ought to have been excluded from a history of the mathematics, not because the description of them is either useless or unentertaining, but because they add to matter already too abundant, and are only collaterally related to the mathematics.

In the first edition, the tissue of narrative and explanation was interwoven with philosophical reflections only: in the present, it is variegated with political censures and execrations. Our countrymen are not the objects of the latter, which are hurled against *Marat*, the calumniator of Newton, the scourge of France, and the enemy of human kind: but the English escape not censures: they are accused of having waged against the French an atrocious war: to terminate which, the historian informs us, an attempt was to have been made, by means of the diving-boat of Fulton, to destroy the navy of England.

Book iii. comprehends the history of the progress of theoretical and analytical mechanics, or philosophical mechanics, during the 18th century: in which, great use is made of the *Mécanique Analytique* of *La Grange*.

The history of Astronomy is very clearly and satisfactorily given; which, indeed, was to be expected: for here LA LANDE is in his element.

A distinct division of the work is assigned to the history of Navigation and the art of constructing Vessels. When we consider the variety and the extent of the subjects treated in these volumes, we cease to wonder at their great bulk: but, at the same time, we cannot help wishing that this bulk had been less.

Although this publication forms a valuable acquisition to science, it is not secure from objection and censure. It is not excellent in its arrangement, and it requires to be pruned and compressed. Many causes may be assigned for the latter volumes not being equal to the former. They are not the natural and matured produce of study and reflection: they were rather prematurely forced into publication, by particular exigencies: MONTUCLA himself did not live to finish them; the

historian (apparently, as we have said, no very profound mathematician,) had now to treat subjects of the most difficult and abstruse nature; and though his judgment had probably improved by age, the researches and investigations necessary in his undertaking required great alacrity and vigour of mind, qualities which probably had been impaired by the same cause. In thus enumerating imperfections and their causes, however, let us not forget that the work itself is a great work; and let it not be denied that it intitles its auther to a distinguished place among the cultivators of philosophy and abstract science.

ART. VI. *Collection de Mémoires, &c.; i. e.* A Collection of Memoirs and official Correspondence relative to the Administration of the Colonies, particularly of French and Dutch Guiana and the Island of St. Domingo. By V. P. MALOUET, Ex-Minister of the Colonies and of the Navy. 8vo. 5 Vols. Paris. 1802. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 1l. 10s. sewed.

FEW persons, we believe, are apprized of the serious hardships and imminent perils which await the execution of colonizing projects on the continent of South America, and particularly of that part of it which is included within the torrid zone. Nothing but the fascinating love of gold could induce men voluntarily to oppose themselves to such formidable difficulties: but, instigated by this principle, they will brave the tempests of the ocean, cut their way through forests inhabited by poisonous reptiles and beasts of prey, and toil in bogs or morasses teeming every moment with pestilence and death. Hence adventurers are continually flocking to trans-atlantic settlements; and hence recruits are easily obtained to repair the ravages occasioned by the system of colonization, in the most baleful regions. It is impossible to read some parts of M. MALOUET's details relative to this subject, without admiring the perseverance while lamenting the infatuation of men. When settlements, however, are actually made, and they are found to return a profit to the parent state, they are considered as objects of importance; and every thing connected with their formation, preservation, government, and improvement, becomes interesting. M. MALOUET's reports, therefore, relative to the French and Dutch colonies in Guiana are worthy of notice, since they proceed from a person of knowlege and long experience, who was well acquainted with the nature and physical state of this part of the South American continent.

The first and second volumes describe the state of Guiana, when the author first visited it in 1776, in order to superintend the new settlement at Cayenne; and his letters to M. *De Sartine,*

time, the Minister, which are written with ease and freedom, contain a particular account of every measure adopted by him to promote the general welfare. The third volume relates chiefly to Surinam, the Dutch settlement adjacent to Cayenne; detailing the author's journey thither, his reception, and the objects most deserving attention in that flourishing colony. Volume IV. contains details relative to St. Domingo, with a number of judicious observations, which will not fail to excite interest; recent events having so much directed the minds of Europeans to this island. The fifth and last volume is filled with observations on the *Colonial-regimen*.

The author is of opinion that the memoirs and correspondence here presented to the public, though written twenty-five years ago, are so far from having lost any degree of attraction by this circumstance, that they hence derive an advantage over new works on the same subject, however recommended by internal merit. He informs us that, from his earliest youth, he had made the subject of the colonies his particular study; that, having possessed property in St. Domingo, and resided there for a considerable time, he was enabled to form some probable conjectures respecting the best means of promoting the culture and commerce of these dependencies; that he began his career as minister of the navy about 1763, and from that period has been employed in colonial concerns. In that year, also, he was appointed to inspect the men and stores intended to form a new settlement on the coast of Guiana; the Duke of *Choiseul* having conceived the project of compensating for the loss of Canada, by establishing an extensive colony of Europeans in South America. 'It will now appear incredible, (says the author,) that a man of so much good sense should ever have thought of cultivating the bogs of the Torrid zone, with peasants taken from Alsace and Lorraine!' Yet such was the scheme of this minister; and the stupidity and improvidence displayed in the details of its execution surpassed even the extravagance of the plan itself. M. MALOUET observes:

'The expedition consisted of a multitude of mad-headed individuals of all ranks and descriptions, which presented a miserable spectacle even to my inexperience. There were, besides the labouring peasants, monied men, young men of education, whole families of artisans, tradesmen, gentlemen, and lastly a company of actors and actresses, and a band of musicians, to entertain this new colony, each of whom counted on making a rapid fortune. I little thought at the time that, 'ere long, I should mourn over the very tombs of these unfortunate men; and that, notwithstanding this striking and instructive example, (this expedition having cost the country fourteen thousand men and thirty millions of livres,) I should soon have to contend against a similar infatuation.'

Three years had scarcely elapsed from the destruction of the colony of Coro, before a new settlement was planned for another part of Guiana; and, though less extravagant than the first, it was equally the child of inconsiderate speculation, and shared the same fate. A few years obliterated the impression made by this second failure; and, in 1776, for the third time in the space of twelve years, Cayenne was represented as another Peru, by Baron de Besner, who looked forwards to the government of that colony, and was in fact appointed to it after M. MALOUET'S administration. This man had contrived to stamp popularity on his favourite project, which was to entice the negroes in revolt at Surinam to pass the river Maroni, and place themselves under the protection of the French. The author disapproved this wild scheme: but, as he found that the government was determined to form an establishment in Guiana, he composed a system of regulations; which was so much approved that M. *De Sartine* sent for him to Versailles, and informed him that the king had both adopted his plans and intrusted him with their execution: granting him, at the same time, more unlimited power than any former administrator had ever enjoyed, and the flattering privilege of drawing up his own instructions.

On the author's arrival at Cayenne, and during his residence, he experienced much trouble and vexation: but he persevered in his exertions, and, when he left it in 1780, it was in a promising state.—Glancing at the singular nature of this transatlantic region, he says:

'To an European, this continent seems like a new world; the quadrupeds, the reptiles, the birds, and the insects, differ in shape and size from those of Europe: the animals in general are weaker, the plants considerably more robust, and the reptiles enormous. The woods have a more majestic appearance; they represent, in their different ages, the succession of centuries; and a new soil is formed by the exuviæ of these impenetrable forests.'

To the temporal details, he subjoins an account of the success of the spiritual agents attached to the expedition:

'Shortly after my arrival, (says he,) I sent one of the projected missions up the bay *Vincent Pinson* *. I ordered two priests to go thither, with workmen, a number of commodities for sale, and a serjeant's guard to be at the command of the Missionaries. They travelled up the country, and, by means of presents, succeeded in assembling the Indians every Sunday in a chapel which had been built for that purpose. They were catechized and baptized, and they attended regularly at divine service, for which they constantly

* It is in this bay that the most numerous settlements of Indians are found.

received

received each a dram of Taffia *: but no sooner was the Taffia expended, than the negroes omitted their attendance at chapel. One of the Missionaries was so imprudent as to send some armed soldiers for them: but they resisted this force, and sent their chiefs to Cayenne, in order to prefer their complaints.

'M. *De Fiemond*, the old governor, happening to be absent, they came to me; and on seeing the reflection of their figures and motions in the looking-glasses which ornamented the apartment in which I received them, they uttered loud shrieks of joy and surprize: they danced, touched the glasses, spoke to them, and then looked behind them to find out the cause of this reflection. No sooner, however, had astonishment subsided, than they resumed their former grave countenances, and squatted on the floor; where, staring at me with a look of discontent, they expressed themselves nearly in the following terms, which were explained to me by an interpreter, in the presence of the ecclesiastical prefect, and several civil and military officers:

"We come to inquire what thou wantest of us, and why thou hast sent the Whites to distress us? They signed a treaty with us, which they have been the first to break. We agreed to attend their singing, and to kneel down in their *Carbet*, for which we were to receive weekly a bottle of Taffia. As long as they gave us this Taffia, we came; when they withdrew it, we left them unmolested, and demanded nothing: they then sent soldiers, to compel us by force to attend them: but to this we will not submit.—They also require us to sow and to labour after the manner of the Whites, which we will not do.—We are able to furnish thee with twenty hunters, and fishermen, at the rate of three piasters per month for each man: if this suit thee, we are at thy service: but, if we are to be molested, we shall settle on some other river."—

'I assured them that in future they should have no more cause for complaint; and that the Missionaries had been sent to them for their benefit, and not for their injury. I commissioned the prefect to explain the religious object of his mission: but his discourse was of no use, for they replied to it only by peals of laughter. I loaded them with presents, and sent them home contented. I charged the Missionaries to act with more circumspection; the treaty of the Taffia was renewed: but it produced not a single conversion; not a field of cleared land; nor did it facilitate any intimacy between the Indians and the Whites.'

From this anecdote, it may be inferred that the civilization of the Indians is no easy task; and that, in their present state, there is little prospect of giving them correct notions of Christianity. If Missionaries were honest, we should probably be presented with many accounts of this kind.

On a visit to the forts, and to the neighbouring villages of the Indians, M. MALOUET met with an occurrence which he thus relates:

* A kind of rum.

'On a small island in the middle of the Oyapock, where the torrent forms a most magnificent cascade, I found an old soldier, who had served under Louis XIV. and had obtained a pension in consequence of a wound which he received at the battle of Malplaquet. He was one hundred and ten years old in 1777, and had lived forty years in this solitude. He was blind, naked, very much wrinkled, and decrepitude was expressed in his figure, though not in his actions; his manner of walking and the sound of his voice were those of a robust man; and a long white beard hung down to his middle. His society consisted of two old negroe women, who maintained him by the produce of their fishery, and of a small garden which they cultivated on the bank of the river. He spoke of the *black wig* of Louis XIV. whom he called a *handsome and great Prince* (un beau & grand Prince), of the warlike appearance of Marshal *Villars*, of the modest countenance of Marshal *Catinat*, and of the goodness of *Fénélon*, at whose door he had stood sentinel at Cambray. He had arrived at Cayenne in 1730, where he had been employed as *economiste* (steward) by the jesuits, who were at that time the only opulent proprietors, and he himself was then in very easy circumstances. I offered to convey him to the fort, but he objected, saying that the noise of the cascade was to him a source of enjoyment, that the abundance of fish was a great comfort, and that, as I had promised him a ration of bread, wine, and salt meat, he could wish for nothing more.

'He had received me with the greatest demonstrations of joy: but, when I was about to depart, his venerable countenance was bathed with tears. He had, notwithstanding his blindness, discovered my emotion; he laid hold of my coat, and with that dignified deportment, so becoming in old age, he bade me *stop*; after which he knelt down in prayer, laid his hands upon the top of my head, and gave me his blessing.'

In another excursion, the author witnessed the extreme apathy and indolence of the Indians, when afflicted with any disease. Though half of the village had fallen victims to an epidemic complaint, they refused every humane offer, would take no medicines, submit to no regimen, and, with the utmost indifference, resigned themselves to their fate. If, however, when attacked by illness, they take no trouble to escape death, in health they are so extremely active and persevering that no difficulties can intimidate them.

M. MALOUET gives the limits of Guiana from north to south; states the right of the French to the country situated between the rivers Amazon and Oroonoko; and enters into a long enumeration of particulars relative to the system of colonization in this part of the world.

The author appears to have been assiduous in promoting the happiness of the colony at Guiana; in alleviating, as far as circumstances would admit, the sufferings of the slaves; and

and in rectifying abuses which had been suffered to spring up from the want of integrity or vigilance in the members of the government, and other officers. The struggles which he was forced to encounter in establishing the laws, in reforming the manners, and in improving the estates of the inhabitants, are fully enumerated in his letters to M. *De Sartine* and the governors of the Company of Guiana. Wretched indeed must have been the state of the colony on the author's arrival at Cayenne: which knew neither judges nor lawyers who could reflect the least honour on their profession, and where justice was either wholly neglected, or administered with a most partial hand.

To give a farther idea of the deplorable state of some of the inhabitants, we translate a part of one of M. MALOUET's letters to M. *De Sartine*:

'26th March 1777. I have been to all the posts and different quarters of this colony, both to the south and west; and I found all the inhabitants at their houses. I have been up the Oyapock, the Aprouague, and the Sinnamary, upwards of twenty leagues from their mouths: I have travelled through several mountainous parts, and through the low and high grounds; and I must inform you that this colony is as poor and as miserable as any spot of the world. I found a man at Oyapock dying with hunger in his hut, at the distance of seven leagues from any other habitation; and I have met several at Aprouague, who lived merely on roots, having neither bread nor wine, labouring under disease, and languishing on their couches. Such is the state of the majority of the inferior inhabitants along the banks of the rivers. The most industrious and robust have escaped; and I met, between Sinnamary and Kourau, a few men whose labours and success have astonished me.—An old soldier, named *Gervais*, cultivates seven acres of ground, planted with corn and cotton: he has thus obtained the situation of a rich farmer, being proprietor of a great herd of cattle, and being enabled to purchase four negroes. There are, perhaps, in the whole colony, about 20 of this sort of men; the rest have either perished or live in misery. The first class of inhabitants is in general in uneasy circumstances, with the exception of a dozen only. Among the latter, I found some laborious and intelligent men, nearly all of whom were tilling grounds of inferior quality. The majority of the rest are either unfortunate, or in debt, working and living very ill. M. *Rochelle*, who bought M. *Dubucq*'s estate, is one of those who astonished me most: he had gained one hundred thousand crowns at St. Domingo, and is come hither to sink them on a most detestably bad tract of land. I found him perfectly naked, working in the midst of his slaves, and having neither furniture nor provisions in his house.'

The streets not being paved when M. MALOUET arrived at Cayenne, he had this necessary work effected: 'for in rainy weather each street became a torrent, or a muddy ditch. The foundations of the houses must thus be impaired, and

the public communications become impracticable.' He adds:

'Several churches are going to ruin; and the churchwardens and the manufacturers refuse to contribute towards their repairs. The orders of the government are unexecuted. The National Assembly has suggested the prohibition of burials in the churches; and if this exclusion has been deemed necessary in Europe, it must be more essential under the torrid zone.'

This correspondence contains not only a detail of the bad state of this settlement, but of the deficiency of its supplies from the present state.

The only hope of improving the colony having been found to rest on clearing and draining the low country, (the high grounds being steril,) it was deemed a matter of some importance to ascertain the possibility of these operations. Till this period, no man had been daring enough to cross swampy plains covered with flags and thorns; which were considered as inaccessible during the rainy season, and it was only during that period that the degree of fall to the sea could be ascertained. On this enterprize, however, Messrs. *Boisberthelot* and *Guisan*, engineers, were sent, accompanied by M. *Couturier*, from Cayenne; with orders to explore the country situated between the right bank of the *Mahuri* and the left bank of the *Kaw*. No search was ever made with more peril, fatigue, and perseverance; and we select a few extracts from their journal, to convey, if possible, an idea to our readers of the dreadful situation of persons who undertake to explore and clear a country in this part of the world:

'March 4. We continued to clear the little creek which takes its source close to the savannahs; and at noon we had carried our canoes across the lands into the *Pripris*, or swamps. We were here astonished at not finding above 15 and 18 inches of water, which was not sufficient to float the canoes, and our difficulties were increased by the flags with which these savannahs are covered: they are an inch thick, and from seven to eight feet high. We have two canoes that can hold four men each with their provisions, and a small flat-bottomed boat which will carry six men; and our provisions will last for eleven days:—but, as three or four negroes are required to clear our way, we have not a sufficient number of men left (even including ourselves) to draw our canoes over the shallows, and shall therefore leave our flat-bottomed boat behind, as well as that in which we stored up part of our provisions, and begin our march in the water, with our negroes, pushing and dragging our canoes along. We open a straight line to the S. E., and this evening (six o'clock) we find ourselves at a quarter of a league from the *Palituviers*. We have passed a very uncomfortable night: the negroes have all been stowed together in one of the canoes, which was filled every moment with the rain; so that one of them was constantly employed in baleing out the water, while the others endeavoured to sleep. None of

of us enjoyed any covering: but the Whites had the advantage of having their hammocks suspended on long poles called *takaris*, which kept us for a time above the water: but, the poles having sunken into the ground, by our weight, we found ourselves at day break in the water. After this wretched night, all our efforts were required to bring up the flat-bottomed boat, which yesterday we left behind, that we might make more room for the negroes during the night.

March 6. We are beyond the great flags, and have reached a plain covered with grass, much resembling the leaves of the young sugar canes. The blades of it, cutting like a razor on both edges, permit us to proceed but slowly, and have wounded the legs of the negroes. At noon, we arrived at another plain covered with two inches more of water than we found among the flags. We still keep to the S. E. It rains incessantly. Our provisions and luggage are all wet. We encamp as usual at six o'clock in the evening.

'March 7. The rain has been so incessant as to render it impossible to observe any thing either to the right or left.—Our provisions begin to spoil.

'March 8. We crossed the *Moucou-moucous* yesterday evening, and entered a part covered with trees of *Pruniers-cotton*, which are so thick that a man cannot penetrate them without cutting his way. We are obliged therefore to employ hatchets and sabres, to enable our canoes to pass. This wood is extremely hard; and as it cannot be cut below the surface of the water, our boats are continually striking on the stumps, and we have much trouble in dragging them from one stump to another; yet this day we have advanced from 180 to 200 *toises* (360 or 400 yards), and to our hardships is to be added the badness of our provisions. We have had only two hours of fair weather.'

The journal proceeds to a great length with similar details: but these specimens are sufficient to answer the purpose for which we extracted them.

Many particulars are enumerated relative to Surinam, which were collected in the course of the author's visit to this Dutch settlement. He gives a favourable account of the general situation and treatment of the negroes, and of Surinam itself he thus speaks:

'I have seen nothing in the French or English colonies, which can be compared to the beauty and neatness of its plantations. All the lands along the shores are at every tide overflowed with four or five feet of water: but by means of sluices and ditches, the Dutch have succeeded in draining them, and hence they have obtained considerable profit. The planters of Surinam are very enterprizing, and are greatly assisted by the unbounded credit which they obtain at Amsterdam at the rate of 6 per cent. This colony would have made a much more rapid progress, had it not been for the Maroon negroes, with whom the inhabitants are at perpetual war. The company maintains at Surinam two battalions of 600 men each, and one corps of artillery; which are almost entirely occupied in defending the posts against these negroes. The inhabitants also

(even

(even the Jews) are trained to arms, and are obliged to do military duty in cases of necessity. The colony produced, in 1768, 14,000 lbs. of coffee, 26,000 casks of raw sugar, each weighing 1000 lbs. 200,000 lbs. of cocoa, and 100,000 lbs. of cotton. It imports from N. America cattle, flour, salted-beef, cod-fish, and in short all kinds of provisions, with various other articles: but no negroes. The colony is composed of about 50,000* slaves, and 4000 Whites, great part of whom are Jews,—for in no spot of the world do this people enjoy so many privileges.'

As, however, these statements are not recent, and as we gave large extracts from Dr. Bancroft's *Essay on the Natural History of Guiana* in our Reviews for March and April 1769 (vol. xl. p. 199.—p. 276.), and from the much later account of Surinam contained in Captain Stedman's Narrative, in our Reviews for April and May 1797 (vol. xxii. p. 427. and vol. xxiii. p. 65. N. S.), we shall not farther transcribe from the present details.

The Essay on St. Domingo includes a description of its situation, climate, soil, and productions; of the slaves and plantations; of the towns, of the internal trade, and of its commerce with the mother country and foreigners; of its situation during war; of its administration, finances, and religious establishment: but here, also, dates obstruct us. This Essay was composed twenty-six years ago; Mr. Edwards's modern and valuable history is before the public; and recent events have rendered old accounts of this island in a great measure obsolete.

In his introduction to this Essay, the author exclaims:

'While I am writing, the general peace is proclaimed, and yet the blood of Frenchmen flows again under the torrid zone. A mulatto, who had grown old in slavery †, disputes the sovereignty of St. Domingo with the hero who has given peace to Europe, and his bloody flag is unfurled against the victorious standards of the republic. He permits the Whites to live under his orders in a state of degradation, but murders them as soon as the government shews a wish to resume its power in the colony. Thus *a secret full of horror is brought to light.* The gift of liberty to the Blacks has now occasioned the massacre of the Whites, and involved their fields and cities in flames.'

Hence it may be inferred that M. MALOUET's sentiments were against the emancipation of the negroes; yet he would modify their servitude.

In his papers on the colonial regimen, which are here collected together, the author's views on negroe slavery, and his opinion respecting the dangerous project of their emancipation, are more

* In 1777, they were reckoned at 66,000.

† Toussaint, who is said to have lately died in prison in France.

fully

fully displayed. These memoirs were presented to his government, in order to evince the necessity of forming a system relative to the colonies: but, being more interesting to the French than to us, we shall pass them over in silence.

At the end of this publication, we find a note highly complimentary to the English constitution and national character.

If much information is contained in these volumes, they also abound in repetition; and the work might have been considerably reduced in size, without any loss to the public.

ART. VII. *Traité de Mecanique Celeste*, &c.; *i. e.* A Treatise on Celestial Mechanics. By P. S. LA PLACE, Member of the Conservative Senate, of the National Institute, of the Board of Longitude, of the Royal Societies of London and Göttingen, of the Russian, Danish, and Italian Academies of Science. Vol. III. 4to. Paris. 1802. Imported by De Boffe, London.

THE first part of this work contained the general principles of the equilibrium and motion of matter*; and their application to the heavenly motions led to the law of universal gravitation. In considering, in the next place, a system of bodies subjected to that great law of nature, by means of a singular analysis, the general expression of their motions, of their figures, and of the oscillations of fluids covering them, were exhibited: from which expressions were derived all the phænomena of the tides, of the variation of degrees, of gravitation at the surface of the earth, of the precession of the equinoxes, of the libration of the moon, of the figure and rotation of the rings of Saturn, and of their permanence in the plane of his equator.

'We have, then, deduced (says M. LA PLACE) the principal inequalities of the planets, and especially those of Jupiter and Saturn; the period of which inequalities, comprehending more than nine hundred years, and offering to observers only anomalies of whose laws and causes they were ignorant, has for a long time appeared to form an exception to the theory of gravitation: but that theory, more thoroughly examined, has explained them, and receives one of its most striking confirmations from these anomalies. We have developed the variations of the elements of the planetary system, which are re-established only after a great number of ages. Amid all these changes, we have recognised the constancy of the mean motions, and of the mean distances of the body of that system which nature seems originally to have disposed for eternal duration, by the same views which appear so admirably to guide her on the earth for the preservation of individuals and the perpetuity of species. From the single circumstance of these motions being di-

* See Appendixes to M. R. vols. xxxi. and xxxii. N. S.

rected by the same law, and in planes little different, the orbits of planets and of satellites must always be nearly circular, and little inclined to each other. Thus, the variation of the obliquity of the ecliptic to the equator, constantly confined within narrow limits, will never produce a season of perpetual spring on the earth. – We have proved that the attraction of the terrestrial spheroid, continually bringing back to its centre the hemisphere which the moon presents to us, transfers to the rotatory motion of this satellite the great secular variations of its motion of revolution, and excludes the other hemisphere for ever from our view. Finally, we have demonstrated, concerning the motions of the first three satellites of Jupiter, this remarkable theorem; viz. that, by virtue of their mutual action, the mean longitude of the first seen from the centre of Jupiter, *minus* three times that of the second, and *plus* twice that of the third, is exactly and constantly equal to two right angles, so that they can never all be eclipsed at the same time. It remains for us to consider particularly the perturbations of the motions of planets, and of comets round the sun; of the moon about the earth; and of satellites about their respective planets.'

The particular object of the present volume, called the second part, is the perfection of astronomical tables by means of the deductions and results obtained from theory. From the present great improvement of physical astronomy, for which the mathematical world is much indebted to M. La Place, the tables may be expected to receive a proportional accuracy; since their correctness seems to have kept pace with the progress of that science which is their base. In times prior to Copernicus, they were imperfect: but, from the discoveries of that great man, in the middle of the sixteenth century, astronomical science assumed a new appearance. Then followed the celebrated age, the age of literature, of the fine arts, and of science. *Kepler* discovered the elliptical motion of the planets; *Galileo* availed himself of a fortunate accident, and invented the telescope; *Huygens* applied the pendulum to the measure of time; and, to accompany and aid these discoveries and inventions, new instruments of thought and reasoning were constructed. *Napier* invented logarithms; *Descartes* improved the algebraical analysis; and *Newton* laid the foundations of the differential calculus and of physical astronomy. The fabric which was thus begun, the labours and genius of mathematicians of the eighteenth century have augmented; and these labours, *Bradley*'s discoveries, the construction of astronomical instruments, of watches, and of achromatic telescopes, the measurement of the earth, the discovery of the *Georgium Sidus*, of his satellites, and of two satellites of Saturn, render the eighteenth century not unworthy of that which preceded. The present has commenced with happy auspices, the discovery of the planets Ceres and Pallas. The proximity of these two very small bodies to Jupiter,

Jupiter, and the excentricity and inclination of their intersecting orbits, produce in their motions some considerable inequalities, which will throw new light on the theory of celestial attractions, and afford the means of rendering it still more perfect.

Those who are acquainted with the preceding volumes of the *Celestial Mechanics*, and with the difficulty of their subject, will readily excuse us for not attempting an analysis of the volume before us. We must confine ourselves to a statement of the contents, as briefly announced; and to an extract or two, in common language, relating to facts and circumstances which may be considered as generally interesting.

The principal subject of this part of the work, as we have already stated, is the particular theory of the Heavenly Motions. Chapter 1. is intitled, Formulas of the Planetary Inequalities dependent on the Squares, and on the superior Powers of the Excentricities and Inclinations of Orbits. 2. Inequalities dependent on the Square of the disturbing Force. 3. On the Perturbations arising from the Ellipticity of the Sun. 4. On the Perturbations of the Motions of the Planets by the Action of their Satellites. 5. Considerations on the Elliptical Part of the Radius Vector, and of the Motion of the Planets. 6. Numerical Values of the Quantities which enter the Expressions of the Planetary Inequalities. 7. Numerical Expressions of the Secular Variations of the Elements of the Planetary Orbits. 8. Theory of Mercury. 9. Theory of Venus. 10. Theory of the Motion of the Earth. 11. Theory of Mars. 12. Theory of Jupiter. 13. Theory of Saturn. 14. Theory of Uranus. 15. On certain Equations of Condition which exist between the Planetary Inequalities, and which may serve to verify them. 16. On the Masses of the Planets, and of the Moon. 17. On the Formation of Astronomical Tables, and on the Invariable Plane of the Planetary System. 18. On the Action of Stars on the Planetary System.

Book 17th. On the Theory of the Moon.—Chapter 1. Integrations of the Differential Equations of the Lunar Motion. 2. On the Lunar Inequations arising from the non-spherical Form of the Earth and Moon. 3. On the Inequalities of the Moon arising from the Action of the Planets. 4. Comparison of the preceding Theory with Observations. 5. On an Inequality of a long Period which appears to exist in the Moon's Motion. 6. On the Secular Variations of the Motions of the Moon and Earth, which possibly may be produced by the Resistance of an Ethereal Fluid surrounding the Sun.

The

The following extract is taken from the chapter on the Theory of the Moon:

'My object in this book (says M. La Place) is to shew, in the sole law of universal gravitation, the source of all the inequalities of the lunar motion; then to avail myself of that law, as an instrument of discoveries, to render more perfect the theory of the lunar motion; and thence to deduce several important elements of the system of the world, such as the secular equations of the moon, its parallax, that of the sun, and the earth's oblateness. An advantageous choice of co-ordinates, of approximations well conducted, and of calculations made with care, and several times verified, ought to give the same results as observation; if the law of gravity, according to the inverse square of distances, be the law of nature. I have, then, applied myself to complete those conditions which require very deliberate consideration; and the omission of which is the cause of discordances presented in the known theories of the moon. In these different circumstances, consists the real difficulty of the problem. We may easily imagine a great number of various and new means of putting it into an equation: but the discussion of all the terms which, though small themselves, acquire a sensible value by successive integrations, is the most difficult and the most important point, when it is proposed to bring together theory and observation: which ought to be the principal object of analysis. I have determined all the inequalities of the first, the second, and third order, and the most considerable inequalities of the fourth, in carrying the precision even to the quantities of the fourth order inclusively, and in keeping those of the 5th order, which independently presented themselves. To compare my analysis with observations, I have considered that the co-efficients of Mason's lunar tables are the result of the comparison of the theory of gravity with eleven hundred and thirty-seven observations of Bradley, made in the interval between 1750 and 1760. *Burg*, a distinguished astronomer, has lately rectified them by means of more than three thousand observations of Maskelyne, between the years 1765 and 1793. The corrections which he has made are not very considerable: but he has added to them new equations indicated by theory. The tables of these two astronomers are arranged in the same form as those of *Mayer*, of which they are the successive improvements; for with regard to that celebrated astronomer, we must in justice observe, not only that he first formed lunar tables sufficiently precise to serve for the solution of the problem of the longitude, but moreover, that Mason and Burg have drawn from his theory the means of improving their tables. The arguments are there made to depend one on another, in order to diminish their number: I have reduced them, with particular care, to the form which I have adopted in my theory; that is to say, into sines and cosines of angles increasing proportionally to the true longitude of the moon. In comparing the co-efficients of my formulas, I have had the satisfaction of seeing that the greatest difference which, in Mayer's theory, (one of the most exact that have hitherto appeared,) rises almost to an hundred seconds, is here reduced to thirty relatively to Mason's tables, and under twenty-six relatively to Burg's tables, which

which are still more precise. This difference would be diminished, in estimating the quantities of the fifth order that have influence, and which the inspection of terms already calculated is able to make known; and it is this that proves the calculation of two inequalities, in which I have carried the approximation even to quantities of that order. My theory, moreover, brings nearer together the tables with regard to the motion in latitude; the approximations of this motion are more simple and more convergent, than those of the motion in longitude; and the greatest difference between the co-efficients of my analysis and those of the tables is only six seconds, so that we may regard this part of the tables as being given by the theory itself. With respect to the third co-ordinate of the moon, or of its parallax, it has been with reason deemed better to form tables of it solely by the theory; which, considering the smallness of the inequalities of the lunar parallax, ought to give them more exactly than observations. The differences between my results on this point and those of the tables are such, then, as exist between my theory and that of Mayer, followed in this point by Mason and Burg: they are so small that they merit little attention: but, as my theory approaches more nearly to observation than that of Mayer, with regard to the motion in longitude, I have reason for thinking that it possesses the same advantage with respect to the inequalities of the parallax.

'The motions of the perigee, and of the nodes of the lunar orbit, afford also the means of verifying the law of gravitation. Their first approximation primarily gave to geometricians only half of the first of these motions; and *Clairaut* thence concluded that it was necessary to modify that law, in adding to it a second term: but at length he made the important remark that a farther approximation brought theory and observation to agree. The motion deduced from my analysis does not differ from the true one, by its four hundred and fortieth part; and the difference is not a three hundred and fiftieth part, with regard to the motion of the nodes.

'Hence it infallibly follows that the law of universal gravitation is the sole cause of the lunar inequalities; and if we consider the great number and extent of these inequalities, and the proximity of this satellite to the earth, we may conclude that, of all the heavenly bodies, it is the most proper for establishing this great law of Nature; as well as the power of analysis of that wonderful instrument, without which it had been impossible for the human mind to penetrate into so complicated a theory, and which may be employed as a means of discoveries as sure as observation itself.'

M. La Place then continues to state the advantages which may be derived from properly examining the periodic inequalities of the moon. He likewise shews to what cause the acceleration of the mean motion of the moon, indicated by the antient eclipses, is to be attributed. In speaking of the tables, to the perfection of which the calculations here given are specially destined, he says:

'The error of the tables, formed after the theory which I present in this book, will not exceed an hundred seconds, except in very rare instances;

instances; and therefore these tables will give, with sufficient exactness, the longitude at sea. It is very easy to reduce them to the form of Mayer's tables: but, as in the problem of the longitude, we propose to find the time which corresponds to an observed true longitude of the moon; there is some advantage in reducing into tables, the expression of the time in a function of that longitude. Considering the extreme complication of successive approximations, and the precision of modern observations, most of the lunar inequalities have hitherto been better determined by observation than by analysis. Thus, in borrowing from theory all that it gives with exactness, and the form of all the arguments; and in rectifying afterward, by the comparison of a great number of observations, whatever it gives by approximations which leave some uncertainty; we ought to obtain very precise tables. This is the method which Mayer and Mason have successfully employed; and lastly Burg, in following and in availing himself of the new progress of the lunar theory, has lately constructed tables, of which the greatest errors are under forty seconds. Nevertheless, it would be useful for the perfection of astronomical theories, that all the tables should be derived from the sole principle of universal gravitation, in borrowing from observation only the indispensible data. I presume to think that the following analysis leaves little to be done, in order to procure this advantage to the lunar tables; and that, by advancing still farther the approximations, we should soon obtain it: at least with regard to the periodic inequalities: for whatever be the precision used in calculation, the motions of the nodes and of the perigee will always be best determined by observation.'

We shall conclude with one short passage which is very curious: 'A remarkable astronomical epoch is that in which the great axis of the terrestrial orbit coincided with the line of the equinoxes: for then the true and mean equinoxes were united. I find, by the preceding formulas, that this phænomenon took place towards the year 4004 before the Christian Æra, a period at which the majority of our chronologists place *the creation of the world*; and which, under this point of view, may be considered as an astronomical epoch.'

ART. VIII. *Mémoires de l'Institut National*, &c.; *i. e.* Memoirs of the National Institute of Arts and Sciences at Paris. Vol. IV. in three Parts. 4to. Paris. 1802. Imported by De Boffe, London.

IN continuing to follow the steps of this active body, we shall commence our present operations, as we did with regard to the last volume, by first paying our respects to that division of the work which is allotted to the

MATHEMATICAL SCIENCES. 4to. pp. 700.

HISTORY.—*Historical Notice of Charles Louis L'Heritier.* By M. CUVIER.—These short notices are not mere testimonies

of respect towards the deceased, but contain many pleasing anecdotes, useful facts, and just reflections. The object of them claims attention and respect for his knowlege, for his zeal, for the liberality with which he spent his fortune in the advancement of science, and for his melancholy and mysterious end. *L'Heritier* was born to a considerable fortune, and to that situation of life in which true happiness is most generally found: a station much above poverty, yet too low to command any prospects of great ambition. Not choosing, however, to seek happiness in indolent repose, he cultivated the sciences, and braved the envy of his cotemporaries. His labours in botany are sufficiently known: but an anecdote is here related of him, which, though to some it may not be new, many others may be glad to learn. He purchased the herbal of *Dombey*, who returned in 1786 from Peru and Chili with a great collection in natural history; and he immediately put every thing in order, hired painters and engravers, and would soon have presented his treasure to the world, when the court of Spain, being about to publish the natural history of those countries which they had caused to be examined, felt desirous that the researches of *Dombey* should not appear first, and signified its wishes to the court of France. *L'Heritier* heard by chance at Versailles that an order had been given to *Buffon*, to take the herbal of *Dombey* into his possession. Alarmed at the news, he hastened to Paris; consulted his friend *Broussonet*; assembled twenty or thirty carpenters, whom he employed all night in making boxes; then, with the aid of his wife, *Broussonet*, and *Redouté*, packed up the herbal, and, early in the morning, set out for Calais, with his valuable luggage, and never rested till he touched English ground.

L'Heritier did not return to Paris till after the Revolution; and then, according to his biographer, having been struck with the noble use to which Sir Joseph Banks is well known to put his library, he imitated our munificent countryman, daily entertained the learned, and granted them the free use of his books. M. CUVIER also adds that *L'Heritier*'s botanical library was the most complete of its kind in Europe.

When called to the magistracy, *L'Heritier* was inflexibly rigid in the discharge of its duties. The authors of his death, and the motive for it, are unknown: but, departing late in the evening from the Institute, he was found the next morning near his house, slain with several blows from a sabre.

Historical Notice respecting Hilaire Francis Gilbert. By the Same.—The subject of this memoir was distinguished for his knowlege in agriculture; and the most important event of

his life was his mission to Spain, to purchase Spanish sheep *. In the treaty which succeeded the short war between France and Spain, one article ceded St. Domingo to the French; or more properly, according to the expression of the biographer, *permitted* the French to conquer it; and another article, which was kept secret, and which was more beneficial to the French, gave them the privilege of purchasing in Spain several thousands of those sheep, whose excellent wool at present supplies almost all their cloth manufactures. In the execution of the important commission of purchasing these sheep, *Gilbert* died, among the mountains of Leon.

Historical Notice of John Charles Borda. By M. Lefevre Gineau.—The name of *Borda* is well known, and will be ever dear to the cultivators and friends of science. It is a remarkable fact, that three of the four persons celebrated in this volume would not submit to the occupation and profession pointed out to them by their parents. *Borda*'s father destined him to the law, but his inclination led him to mathematics, and mathematics he was determined to study. *D'Alembert* thought highly of his early genius, and, at the age of only 23, he presented a memoir to the Academy of Sciences. He did not spend his life, however, in merely speculative pursuits. He was employed in the French navy: he persuaded the minister to have all ships of war built from the same model, after that model had been approved by proper persons: he was appointed to ascertain the situation of Teneriffe, where Captain Cook met with him: in 1782, he commanded the *Solitaire* of 64 guns, in which he was captured by the English: he made great improvements in artillery; he invented the instrument still called after his name, *the circle of Borda*; and his last occupation was the determination of the length of the earth's circumference:—he lived just long enough to see this great work finished, dying in February 1799. Nearly all the improvements in the French navy are to be attributed to *Borda*.

Historical Notice of John Darcet. By M. Cuvier.—Having been disinherited by his father, for disobedience in the choice of his profession, *Darcet* was fortunately introduced to *Montesquieu*, and was patronized by that great man. He moreover enjoyed his confidence in the highest degree; as a proof of which, M. Cuvier relates a fact which can scarcely be called curious, since many such have happened, but which is certainly interesting: 'Montesquieu, vainly solicited on his deathbed to retract those opinions in his book which were not conformable to prevailing sentiments, perceived that those who

* See a farther account of that transaction, in the ixth Art. of this *Appendix*.

besieged

besieged him, despairing of success, would at least attempt to slip in among his effects some paper containing a retractation, and which would be produced as his writing when he was dead. His relations were gained over, and most of his friends were absent: he therefore had recourse to *Darcet*, and gave to him the keys of his manuscripts: but the latter was even obliged to employ force, in order to prevent their being taken from him. This last act, by which his friend in some degree bequeathed to him the care of his honour, so powerfully affected him, that, among all the events of his life, to this he was most fond of recurring, and never without the liveliest emotion.'

Darcet cultivated the sciences of medicine and chemistry; was author of many improvements in the Sèvre and Gobelin manufactories; and invented that composition which is now used in the stereotype printing. In his private character, he appears to have been modest, simple, affable, not ambitious of being deemed a great man, but desirous of being a benefactor to society. Had he valued fame more and friendship less, he might have risen to greater elevation among his cotemporaries, and been distinguished by their jealousy.—This notice is composed, in our opinion, with much ability.

Mathematical, Astronomical, *and* Meteorological Memoirs.

Researches concerning the Integration of Equations of partial Differences, and the Vibrations of Surfaces. By M. Biot, Associate.—The subject of this memoir is of great difficulty; and notwithstanding the labours of many learned mathematicians, it still presents many points and parts which require elucidation and improvement. One of the objects, proposed to be attained by M. Biot, is the resolution of some questions which relate to the generality that belongs to integrals of partial differential equations.

The author commences his investigations by proving that a partial differential equation of any order whatever, between any number of variables, is always susceptible of an integral, expressed by a finite or infinite series, and completed by a number of arbitrary functions equal to the index of the order of the equation: each of these functions comprehending as many independent quantities as there are variable quantities, minus two, in the proposed; which fixes the extent that general integrals ought to have. This result is obtained by expanding the value of the principal variable quantity into a series, by means of Taylor's theorem; and the generality which it bears is demonstrated by the indetermination of a suitable number of the first terms of the series.

As an example of the use of his inquiries, M. Biot applies them to the determination of the motions of vibrating surfaces:

'In considering (he says) the vibrations of sonorous chords, philosophers and mathematicians have noticed and explained many interesting phænomena relative to the creation of sound, and to the figures assumed by chords during their motion. The vibration of surfaces, not less interesting, but much more difficult, equally deserves attention: nevertheless, very few analytical researches exist on this subject. *Euler* appears to have been the first who turned his attention that way. In the 10th volume of the Petersburgh Memoirs, he considered the vibrations of an elastic rectangular plane: but the difficulty of the integrations, and even the impossibility of them in finite terms, did not permit him to obtain results that could be compared with experiments. In order to arrive at equations of these motions, he considers the vibrating surface as formed of strings or small chords crossing each other at right angles. He obtains, by the ordinary methods, the vibration of these strings; and by diminishing their intervals, he thence forms the vibrating surface. This mode of treating the problem is undoubtedly very ingenious, but it is more satisfactory, perhaps, geometrically than physically: for a person may with propriety doubt whether a surface, composed of any elementary surfaces whatever, would vibrate like a stretched cloth or net, the threads of which are made indefinitely to approach each other. Nevertheless, the hypothesis is exact: for I have been led, independently of every particular consideration, to the same equation with *Euler*.'

M. Biot then proceeds to state that the researches of experimental philosophers * have been more fortunate than those of geometricians; and M. *Chladny* is mentioned as having made some excellent experiments relative to the vibration of surfaces. The object, considered mathematically, presents great difficulties, chiefly with regard to the integrations; and the hope of avoiding these difficulties in part was only entertained, says the author, till it had been shewn that the most intricate results of celestial mechanics could be deduced from one and the same equation, of which the general equation is possible only by series.

Having obtained the equations of the movement of any vibrating surfaces, the author considers the particular case in which the surface is plane and the elasticity constant; and he deduces the same equation with that of *Euler* in the Petersburgh Memoirs. This equation, a partial differential of the second order, with four variables, has not a general integral in finite terms: but M. Biot forms from it an infinity of

* It is almost impossible not to feel indignation at being continually compelled to express circumlocutorily, and inadequately, the meaning which the French convey by the single word *physicien*.

particular integrals, among which is found, as a particular case, that which *Euler* has exhibited.

Resuming the series, which is the general integral of the equation, M. Biot introduces conditions relative to the immobility of the limits of the surface, supposed to be rectangular. He shews that, if one of the sides of the rectangle be divided into any number of equal parts, and at the first point of division a bridge (*chevalet*) be applied parallel to the adjacent side; the surface, during its movement, will be divided into as many rectangles as there are equal divisions; and these rectangles will vibrate independently of each other: the sides, which are common to them, two and two, remaining at rest. Hence it follows that, if the two sides of the rectangle be divided into equal parts; and, at the first point of division, beginning from the same angle, two bridges (*chevalets*) be applied parallel each to the adjacent sides of the rectangle; the surface, during its motion, will divide itself into squares vibrating independently, the right lines which limit them remaining at rest; and the number of these squares is equal to the product of the numbers, denoting the divisions made on the sides.

Investigating the time, after the expiration of which all the points of the surface will return simultaneously to their original position, M. Biot finds that the time depends on the initial figure of the surface.—It is to be observed that these results, although obtained by the consideration of series, have, nevertheless, all necessary exactness; since they depend on the form, and not on the convergency of the series.

Such is a brief and imperfect account of this learned memoir: the subject of which is hereafter to be resumed.

Memoir on the solstitial Distance of the Sun from the Zenith, in the Tropic of Cancer, in 1796 *and* 1797; *and on the secular Diminution of the Obliquity of the Ecliptic.* By M. Duc La Chapelle.—These observations were made with *Lacaille*'s sextant of six feet.

Observation of the Summer Solstice of the 9th Year (1801), *made at Montauban in the Department of Lot, with the Sextant of the Abbé Lacaille.* By the Same.

Meteorological Observations made at Montmorency near Paris, during the 5th Year of the Republic. By M. Cotte.

Mean Year concluded from Meteorological Observations made at Paris during 33 *Years,* 1763—1781, and 1783—1796; by M. Messier; and at Montmorency during 29 Years (1768—1796); by M. Cotte.

Researches concerning the greatest Degrees of Heat which have occurred at Paris from 1682 *to* 1794. By M. John Dominic Cassini.—The heat which is here the subject of consideration

is absolute or thermometrical heat: sensible heat, or heat felt by the body, cannot be submitted to calculation; though it does not always vary, as the author observes, with absolute heat, but depends on the state of the air, chemically considered, and on the season of the year.

What is meant by the hottest year? Here a definition must be laid down, arbitrary in some degree, yet conformable to common notions. M. CASSINI defines the hottest year to be that in which the thermometer has ascended most frequently above a certain degree, at which the heat commences to be generally felt.—He observes that, when the thermometer (Reaumur's) is between 18° and 20°, (72 and 77 of Fahrenheit,) the day is allowed to be *hot*: when at 24 or 25, (86 or 88 of Fahrenheit,) the day is *very* hot; and when it rises to 30° (or 99), the heat is then uncommon. This remark bears reference to places in the latitude of Paris.

Among these observations, M. CASSINI thinks that he discerns a law by which a scale of comparison may be established, applicable to every kind of thermometer; and the law is this: If we suppose a thermometer, in any way divided; then take, for unity, the interval between the freezing point and the point for the temperature of deep cellars; then double it, and we have the term at which mean heats begin:—if we add half of the first interval, we have the term at which great heats begin;—and if we add again a third of the first interval, we have the term at which extraordinary heats begin. According to this law, M. CASSINI has constructed tables which exhibit the necessary results for a comparison of the heat of the several years; and from these tables he concludes the year 1701 to have been the year of the greatest heat: that is, the summer in which the *sum* of heat was the greatest.

M. CASSINI found more difficulty in resolving the second question; or, in determining the year in which the heat was *simultaneously* the greatest. He concludes, however, that the year 1793 (in which the thermometer was above 100°) was the hottest. With the resolution of this question, he closes the memoir; in which, he justly says, 'he has endeavoured to introduce certain interesting remarks on the observations and instruments employed during a long period of years, relatively to the determination of heat and cold: a determination which this memoir proves not to be so simple, and so easy in practice, as at first sight it might appear to be.'

Journal of the Rising and Falling of the River, in Paris, observed at the Bridge of the Tournelle during the 5th Year of the Republic: presented by M. COUSIN.—This journal is arranged in the form of tables. We do not perceive that it affords any important or interesting result.

Memoir

Memoir occasioned by a Work, presented 11 *Fructidor Year* 6, *by M. Maignon, Lieutenant in the Navy, intitled, Memoir containing Theoretical and Practical Explanations of a Trigonometrical Chart, intended for the Reduction of the apparent Distance of the Moon from the Sun or from a Star into true Distance, and for the Resolution of other Questions in Navigation.* By M. Levêque. —The author of this paper, previously to passing judgment on M. *Maignon*'s charts, introduces a short preliminary dissertation on the progress of the art of navigation, and on the several methods of determining the longitude. Speaking of the method of ascertaining it by watches and time-keepers, he cannot forbear from obliquely censuring the English for deficiency of real zeal in the cause of science. 'Our artists,' he says, 'have indefatigably laboured to determine the longitude by time-keepers, from motives of pure patriotism, not excited by the powerful agency of national recompence. The success of *Pierre Leroy*, of *Ferdinand Berthoud*, and of *Louis Berthoud*, is known to all Europe. The Academy of Sciences having proposed, as a prize-subject, the construction of a watch for finding the longitude, many artists became candidates; and a simple academical prize, the value of which could in no degree indemnify its possessor for his necessary expences, effected among a *generous nation* that which *elsewhere* could be obtained only by the promise of great rewards.'—Yet, if our artists be not so *liberally minded* as the French, is it not a fact that their watches are better; and to what ought we to attribute this circumstance?

In discussing, however, the method of finding the longitude by lunar distances, the author relates the labours of Dr. Maskelyne, and speaks with justice of that excellent astronomer. With M. *Lefevre-Gineau*, (see p. 498.) he attributes all improvement in the French marine, after *Lacaille*, to *Borda*.

With regard to the graphical charts of M. *Maignon*, M. Levêque does not present to the class all the details of their construction, but contents himself with saying that the principles of the author are exact, and that the results which can be furnished by his chart are sufficiently accurate for practice; 'the results which *may* be furnished, (he says,) and not those which are *necessarily* furnished; for, the use of this chart requiring care, dexterity, and practice, it is plain that the results must depend on the union of these circumstances. This is one of the inconveniencies of graphical methods, from which calculation is entirely exempt.'

M. *Maignon* formerly published a method for finding the latitude from two observations, and the time between. His

new chart, the occasion of the present memoir, is applied to the solution of this important problem.

After having passed very high eulogiums on the ingenuity, zeal, and industry of M. *Maignon*, the writer proposes this question: Ought Graphical Methods to be diffused and encouraged among Navigators? Part of the answer to this query contains, in our opinion, much good sense, and therefore we here exhibit it:

'Undoubtedly, we must have methods adapted for all capacities: but it cannot be dissembled that graphical and instrumental methods, however learned and ingenious, have one dangerous quality, viz. they habituate to an operation, which is in some degree automatical, men who are already too much inclined that way. This operation, besides, requires an apprenticeship, which creates no disposition for the acquisition of other knowlege. It may be objected that the case is the same in trigonometrical operations, where the operator is ignorant of the theory: but this comparison is not exact; dexterity in computation is indispensible for many other nautical objects: it is necessary always to acquire it, even if we understand the theory of the methods: it is an essential preliminary. The establishment of examinations has compelled navigators to depart from their usual habits; they have become familiarized to calculation; and already the good effects of this alteration are felt. Would there not be some danger of bringing them back to their former state, in proposing to them mechanical methods, under the specious and false pretext of a greater simplicity? If we consider these methods with reference to their theory, it will be found more complicated than that of rigorous methods, which they necessarily suppose. With regard to time and facility, it is not yet evident that much is gained on this score: they are not entirely independent of calculation; for it is still necessary to calculate, and moreover to perform manual operations with dexterity.'

These are very just and proper remarks; and the following passage, which supports the claim of pure science to the honour of having raised navigation to its present perfection, is written with spirit and animation:

'It is time, then, that mariners should cease to regard the mathematical and physical sciences as useless to the practice and advancement of navigation. Without the aid of science, navigation would now have been in its infancy. Every observing mind must acknowlege the perfection due to an unceasing and continually improving practice: of which the arts and the most common trades offer abundant examples; we may especially discern such instances in different branches of naval skill, in the construction of vessels, in their rigging, in their manœuvres, evolutions, &c.: but towards the sublime art of navigating a vessel, and of assigning its position for every instant of time, all the efforts of mere practice, in all their continuance, never did and never can contribute. It is not that blind and servile routine-

tine-practice, which has produced various instruments successively employed in nautical observations, which has determined the figure of the earth and measured its size, which has afforded methods for the construction of charts, with the rules for using them, as well as learned and ingenious methods for the reduction of courses, and for the solution of every problem that the maritime art can present:—it is to astronomers that mariners are indebted for the means of observing latitude and longitude; and it is to the same persons also that they are obliged for the tables of the heavenly motions, from which so many and such great advantages are derived.—It must be granted that not a single important discovery of this nature is due to a navigator, considered as a mere seaman. All that is grand, all that is excellent, all that is useful, in this part of the marine art, belongs exclusively to the sciences; simple practice cannot go so far.'

In definitively stating the judgment of the class, M. LEVÊQUE says 'that M. *Maignon* merits commendation, because his method is ingenious, and at the same time the most exact of graphical methods hitherto proposed.' 'We think, too, (he says,) that the method may be often useful in correcting and verifying calculations already made: but, at the same time, we say that navigators ought not to deem this mechanical mode so valuable that the acquirement of methods of calculation may be omitted; on the contrary, they ought to practise themselves more and more in calculations, and to reserve graphical methods for the purpose of verifying their operations.'

Observations; 1. *On the great Heat, Dryness, and Diminution of the Waters of the Seine, at Paris, during the Months of July and August* 1793, *compared with the Heat observed in the preceding Years, reckoning from* 1753. 2. *On the direct Heat of the Rays of the Sun on the Thermometers in* 1793. 3. *On the Heat of Water exposed to the Sun in a Bottle of very thin Glass, in* 1793. By M. CHARLES MESSIER.—This memoir has been written (though not in its present enlarged state) a considerable time; and it was presented to the former Academy of Sciences in 1793. It contains a particular description of the great heats, with their effects, which happened in July and August in that year; and also of the terrible storms which occurred in those months. M. MESSIER observes, with *Cassini*, that the least supportable heat was not when the thermometer was highest, but after it had fallen; and that it came in blasts or puffs, which rendered respiration very difficult. The paper contains many facts of which the meteorologist may usefully avail himself.

New Method of determining the Inclination of a Magnetic Needle. By M. COULOMB.—This is a short memoir, but we cannot

cannot, in few words, explain the construction and its principles, such as M. COULOMB sets them forth: we must therefore recommend a perusal of the paper to those who are interested in these inquiries.

Of the other papers in this volume, we propose to make our report at a subsequent opportunity; and we shall now turn our attention to the volume which is appropriated to the

MORAL AND POLITICAL SCIENCES. 4to. pp. 700.

In the HISTORICAL part of this volume, we find a brief notice of the *changes* which have taken place in the Society by the death of several members; among whom the pen of *La Lande* has recorded the fate of *Joseph de Beauchamp*, formerly his pupil, and since a brother astronomer. After various dangers and instances of ill fortune in the course of his peregrinations in Asia, he died at Nice, on his return, in November 1801, aged 49.—The history of *the Labours of the Class* contains a great number of particulars; some of them interesting, as announcing works of importance, and others which do not call for general attention. We can mention only a few.—M. *Dégérando* is reported to have presented two memoirs on the subject of *Pasigraphy*, (mentioned in vol. 3.) in which he expresses a decided disapprobation of the attempt to form an universal language, as liable to occasion false associations of ideas, and to augment the already too great abuse of language: denying also the probability that this is likely to become universally prevalent, and maintaining that several advantages arise from a diversity of idioms.

M. *Grégoire* communicated an account of the *Vosges*, a chain of mountains in Lorraine, now giving name to a department of France, and of the manners and character of the inhabitants. It appears to be worthy of some notice, but it is reported with unsatisfactory brevity.

A more extended analysis is given of various papers transmitted by M. *Dupont*, containing his observations in a tour in North America, chiefly relating to natural history, which seem to deserve attention; and some of which, as the writer of the account observes, are pleasantly intermixed with *badinage philosophique, à la mode Française.*

M. *Baudin*, a French naval officer, is stated to be about to depart on a voyage round the world; and some instructions for his conduct are here inserted, principally from the pen of the well known *Bernardin de St. Pierre.*

M. *Gosselin* has published Inquiries concerning the Geographical Knowlege possessed by the Antients respecting the Persic Gulf; in which he minutely follows the steps of Nearchus

Nearchus in his Periplus, and shews that the statements of this voyager, of Pliny, and of Strabo, are very nearly the same: allowing for the difference of the modes of measurement and calculations which they used. He is said also to have rectified some errors in the recent work of our learned countryman Dr. Vincent, on this subject; and to have thrown great additional light on both the antient and modern navigation of the gulf of Persia.

On turning to the biographical notices of deceased members, we come first to

An Account of James Ant. Creuzé-Latouche. By M. CHAMPAGNE.—We do not perceive that the character of M. *Latouche*, was distinguished by any peculiar brilliance of talent, nor do the circumstances of his life afford much interest. He appears to have been of an amiable and philanthropic turn, and to have regarded less the advancement of his fortune, than the enjoyment of ease and domestic comfort. He paid particular attention to agricultural pursuits, and is also represented as a man of general observation. He was a member of the Agricultural Society of Paris, and, after the revolution, was elected to a share in the management of the political concerns of his country. In the year 1791, he wrote a work intitled *Description Topographique du District de Chatelleraut*, and left several manuscripts of merit, many of which at the time of his death were nearly finished. He was born at Chatelleraut in the year 1750, and died in 1801, very soon after his return from a tour over Holland and the left bank of the Rhine, of which he intended to publish a narrative.

Historical Account of Legrand D'Aussy. By M. PETER CHARLES LÉVESQUE.—'The life of M. *D'Aussy*,' says his biographer, 'may, like that of the greater number of literary men, be comprised in two lines. What places did he frequent? *Libraries.* How did he live? *With books.* What did he do? *Write books.* Of what did he talk? *Those things which are found in books.*'

He was born at Amiens in the year 1737, was educated at the Jesuit's College, and was at an early period appointed professor of rhetoric at Caen, where *La Place* was his pupil. After the destruction of his order, he went to Paris, where he was for some time occupied in the composition of the *Glossaire Français.* In 1770, he was appointed secretary for the direction of studies to the military school at Paris; and he was afterward employed in educating the son of a farmer general, and in co-operating with several others in the *Bibliothèque des Romans.* In 1779, he published a translation of the *Fabliaux*

of

of the older poets; in 1782, his *Histoire de la Vie privée des François*; and in 1788, his *Voyage en Auvergne.*—He also presented several valuable memoirs to the Institute; and, at the time of his death, (which took place in 1801,) he was engaged in writing a complete history of French poetry.

MEMOIRS.

Memoir relative to the Island of Madagascar. By M. LESCALLIER.—This island was visited by the author in the year 1792, in consequence of directions to inspect the possessions of the French government in the East Indies.

M. LESCALLIER describes the inhabitants as being better acquainted with agriculture than they were represented to be by the Abbé *Raynal*, and as having made considerable advances in many kinds of manufacture. The language, and many of the customs, he represents to be very analogous to those of Otaheite. The women are easily accessible: but they are stated by him to be very faithful to their engagements. This circumstance he understood, from a conversation with Lieutenant Roberts who accompanied Captain Cook, to be equally well founded with regard to the females of Otaheite, though it is certainly contrary to the commonly received opinions on the subject.

As it was the object of the author to bind the affections of the people of Madagascar to the French, he proposed that national friendship and attachment should be mutually sworn by him and the king. This was done with great solemnity on both sides: but M. LESCALLIER did not admit the barbarous form of an oath being practised, which had been almost the only one used before that time on solemn occasions, and which was called the oath of blood. He describes it to consist in the contracting parties respectively drinking, with many barbarous clamations and imprecations, a mixture composed of blood drawn from each other's breasts, gunpowder, ginger, gold, and lead.

Fragments of Travels in India. By the Same.—This paper commences with a description of the Pagoda of Chalembron, one of the principal edifices of Hindostan; and it then gives an account of the Baliaderes or dancing girls, the mode of performing Indian plays, and the formalities of a religious feast, with the method of practising ablution in the Ganges. In their plays, the actors are all of the Brahman cast, and the female characters are always executed by men in the dress of women.

An Apology for Barthelemy de las Casas, Bishop of Chiappa. By M. GREGOIRE.—The object of this author is to remove the aspersions thrown on the character of *Las Casas* by *Herrera*, and

and many other writers; who have asserted that he proposed, with much inconsistency, to import negroe slaves from Africa, for the purpose of rescuing the Americans from the yoke under which they laboured.

Memoir on the Laws of Alaric. By M. BOUCHARD.—The result of these inquiries is, that this code was compiled from the Gregorian, Hermogenian, and Theodosian; and also from the works of Caius or Gaius, Julius Paulus, and Papianus.

Three Memoirs on the Constitution of the Republic of Athens. By M. PETER CHARLES LÉVESQUE.—In these very extensive dissertations, the author enters into a detail of the peculiarities of this celebrated republic, to which he annexes occasional observations of his own. It would draw us into great length of analysis, if we were to follow him through all his remarks, and the subject possesses no novelty to attract particular attention: though in France, perhaps, political considerations may impart temporary interest to the discussion.

Memoir on the Return of the Argonauts from the North. By the Same.—From some passages of a Greek poet who assumed the name of Orpheus, and from others in Diodorus Siculus, M. LÉVESQUE is disposed to conceive that the return of the Argonauts from their celebrated expedition was performed by the tedious route of the Baltic and the Straits of Gibraltar. He deems it probable that they reached the Baltic by coursing up the Tanais, now called the Don; crossing over to the Volga; ascending its stream and that of the Tvertza which joins it; carrying their barks overland to the Msta, and by this river passing up to Lake Ilmen, which is joined by the Volkof, to the Lake Ladoga. From the latter, the adventurers would soon arrive at the gulf of Finland and the Baltic, by means of the Neva.—The author attempts to shorten and facilitate this route, by supposing that the Black Sea was at that time joined to the Caspian, into which the Volga is disembogued; or, if the separation had taken place at a more early period, that there were more direct communications northward by water, than are found to exist at the present time.

Researches concerning the Island of Juan de Lisboa. By M. BUACHE.—This island has been represented to be in about the 26th or 27th degree of south latitude, near the meridian of Bourbon: but, though it has been described by many navigators who have seen it, others of later times have been unable to discover it. From a comparison of the various accounts, and an accurate examination of the different maps, M. BUACHE concludes

concludes that the islands of Juan de Lisboa and Romeiros are the same. The accounts of its position have been so contradictory, that he feels it difficult to determine its precise situation: but, from the variation of the magnet which was observed near it, and from an examination of the various situations which have been allotted to it, he seems disposed to place it between 65° and 70° of east longitude from the meridian of Paris, and between 25° and 30° of south latitude.

Observations on the Origin of the Venereal Disease, and on its Introduction into Alsace and Strasburg. By M. KOEH, of Strasburg.— The author of this paper endeavours to confirm the opinion of those who consider the disease as of American origin, by some local evidence derived from the annals of the province of Alsace, and of the city of Strasburg. He gives a general (though rather an incomplete) view of the controversy on this subject, in which he lays great stress on the authorities furnished by Spanish historians, respecting its appearance immediately on the return of Columbus from his first expedition; and the documents afforded in the libraries of Alsace and Strasburg agree in dating its existence in France, from the return of some soldiers who accompanied Charles the VIIIth in his campaigns in Italy. At its first occurrence, its progress was so rapid, that it was regarded by many as an epidemic which could be propagated without actual contact. Persons affected with it were objects of horror; and, as it was prohibited by the magistracy to give them refuge, or even to relieve them, many were suffered to die in the streets. The exertions of a benevolent citizen, *Caspa Hofmeister*, at length obtained for them the compassion of the inhabitants; and a hospital was soon established for their peculiar reception.

The principal cause of the great advances which this disease made in Europe, at its commencement, is ascribed by the author to the astonishing depravity of manners which universally existed at that period. Several striking instances of this fact are mentioned; and in almost every part of Europe, the Cyprian establishment was of such magnitude and importance, as to require the inspection and supervision of certain officers. The custom of licensing houses of a certain description was not unknown in this country in former times: but, in some parts of the continent mentioned by the author, the Cyprian corps had not only an exclusive privilege of exercising their profession, but the right of prosecuting those who interfered with it, not being legally qualified. In Strasburg, at the period of the introduction of the venereal disease, near the end of the 15th century, libertinism of manners had increased to so

great an extent, as even to connive at the appropriation of parts of the cathedral, and other places of worship, to the accommodation of courtesans. Persons thus privileged were distinguished by the appellation of cathedral swallows (*hirondelles de la cathedrale*); and it was not till the year 1521, that they were forced out by order of the magistracy. From the *arrêt*, of which a copy is given, it appears that fifteen days were allowed for these swallows to take their flight to other places assigned for them.

Account of a Literary Society which existed at Strasburg towards the Close of the 15th and the Commencement of the 16th Century. By the Same.—This society was established by James Wimpheling. It is supposed to have terminated in the great school which was founded in the year 1538 by Sturm, an *élève* of Wimpheling, which was afterward elevated to the dignity of an academy, and finally to that of an university.

Geographical Remarks on the Islands of Dina and Marsaveen. By M. Buache.—From the inspection of an antient map, and from various collateral considerations, the author is induced to conclude that the two islands, of which he here treats, are only one, answering to the modern island of Bourbon.

Memoir on the Morals of Cicero. By M. Bouchaud.

Memoir on the Morals of Seneca. By the Same.

In its more early and virtuous periods, the Roman republic entertained considerable distrust of the philosophy of the Greeks; and particular care was taken to prevent its dissemination in the metropolis. To so great an extent had the distaste to the introduction of philosophy and eloquence prevailed, that a decree of the senate was once obtained for the dismissal of Greek philosophers from Rome; because it was feared that, by the influence of their systems, the minds of the Romans (like those of the Greeks) would shortly be enervated: but the progress of wealth, power, and luxury, soon introduced a relish for mental gratifications; and the principles of morals, which had hitherto been few, simple, and practical, expanded into voluminous systems.

M. Bouchaud presents these memoirs as the commencement of an inquiry into the more prominent features of the Roman philosophy; and he proposes, in some future papers, to complete his view of the subject by an examination of the principles of Epictetus and Marcus Aurelius. Both Cicero and Seneca acknowleged the existence of the laws of nature, which they considered as eternal and immutable, and as the only proper foundation for every human institution. They also admitted the immortality of the soul, and the existence of a future

future state, in which the virtuous should enjoy perpetual felicity: but it appears to the author that they possessed very indistinct and erroneous ideas respecting the final portion of the wicked.—Cicero rejected the fables of the poets with regard to Tartarus, and seemed to be of opinion that death would either make us happy or annihilate us. Seneca equally discredited the punishments of the infernal regions; and, in that part of his work in which he treats of this subject, he observes, "that death can operate on us only as annihilation or release: if the latter, we have nothing but happiness to expect: if the former, all is ended; good and evil no longer exist."

On the Use of Money in a large State. By M. TOULONGEON.—The author here considers money as the common representative of every kind of wealth. He introduces a variety of discussions on the effects of its diffusion in different degrees among the members of a state; and at length he comes to the conclusion that it is advantageous to the public that it should be principally confined to the labouring part of the community: while the credit and confidence which result from the public opinion of individual character constitute the most convenient coin of the rich, and that which is best adapted for commercial intercourse.

Analysis of the different Opinions on the Origin of Printing. By M. DAUNOU.—This paper exhibits, at great length, the various opinions entertained on the subject which it treats, and concludes by stating that which the writer deems the most probable. He regards it as likely,

"That tabular printing, which existed long since in China, was applied by the Europeans, towards the end of the fourteenth century, or the commencement of the fifteenth, to the printing of cards and figures:—that, before the year 1440, there were printed at Haarlem, or elsewhere, several collections of figures, with short inscriptions annexed to them, and afterward little books of devotion and school-books, particularly small grammatical abridgments called *Donats*:—that also before the year 1440, *Guttemberg* of Strasburg had conceived the idea of employing moveable types: but that this speculation had only given rise, in Strasburg and Mayence, to laborious, expensive, and unproductive trials:—that no book can be pointed out which was printed by *Guttemberg* at Strasburg; and that those *Donats*, which are supposed to have issued from his press at Mayence, come under the description only of tabular printing:—that every book printed before the year 1457 has either been executed by means of letters engraved on wood, or by those of cast metal, such as are now used;—and that the latter were probably invented by *Guttemberg*, or by *Faust*, undoubtedly brought to perfection by *Schoeffer*, and employed for the first time by *Schoeffer*, *Faust*, and *Guttemberg*, in printing

printing an edition of the Bible, consisting of about 637 or 640 leaves, without date.'

M. DAUNOU's paper is calculated, by its extensive research, to gratify those who are inquisitive on this point of history.

On the Metaphysics of Kant; being Observations on a Work on Pure Reason, *by J. Kinker, translated from the Dutch by J. le F.* 1 vol. 8vo. Amsterdam, 1801. By M. DESTUTT-TRACY.—The author does not here enter into an examination of the whole scope of the Kantian philosophy, but confines his observations to the ideology; from which, as the foundation of the system, he regards it as fair to form an estimate of the whole. He is of opinion that the reasoning on this subject is vague and inaccurate; and that the theory is pervaded by an affected and imposing obscurity, which is often, but erroneously, supposed to originate in philosophical acumen and profundity.

This memoir terminates the volume relative to the *Moral and Political Sciences.* In our next Appendix, we shall resume the consideration of the *Mathematical and Physical* volume, and attend to that which relates to *Literature and the Fine Arts.*

[*To be continued.*]

ART. IX. *Histoire de l'Introduction des Moutons,* &c.; *i.e.* A History of the Introduction of the fine-woolled Spanish Sheep in different European States, and at the Cape of Good Hope. With the real State of these Animals, their Number, the several Methods of rearing them, and the Advantages which they afford to Agriculture, Manufactures, and Commerce. With a Plate. By C. P. LASTEYRIE. 8vo. pp. 255. Paris. 1802. London, De Boffe. Price 6s. sewed.

MUCH has lately been written on the subject of *wool-bearing animals;* and Europe is under obligations to those philosophical rural economists, who have made this valuable race their particular study. The labours of Lord *Somerville,* and the Drs. *Anderson, Parry,* &c. will occur to the English reader on the present occasion; and foreigners recount with equal respect the names of gentlemen abroad who have directed their exertions to the same object; of *Alstroemer* in Sweden, *Koenig* in Saxony, *Fink* in Prussia, *Magnis* in Silesia, *D'Aubenton* and *Gilbert* in France, *Twent* in Holland, and *Nelson* in Denmark. The present author, M. *Lasteyrie,* must now be added to this list: though he offers no new idea, when he maintains that 'the fineness of the Spanish wool does not

depend on the long journeys which the sheep are forced to take, nor on any peculiarity in the soil, climate, or pasture of Spain: but that it is owing to different causes; and that it is possible to obtain, in France or in any other country, wool of the same quality as that which is imported from Spain,' yet the many proofs which he adduces, in support of this position, may serve to encourage fresh experiments, and to facilitate the general naturalization of the *Mérinos* throughout the states of Europe. 'In my travels,' says he, 'through the northern parts of Europe, I found in general that the flocks carried fleeces, which to the eye and the hand seemed equal, in fineness and beauty, to those of Segovia and Leon; so that, according to my judgment, it is proved, beyond dispute, that it is possible to grow superfine wool in all those countries which furnish pasture, or where winter-food for sheep can be obtained.'

To establish this fact, he first gives a history of the introduction of flocks of the Spanish breed, or *Mérinos*, into Sweden, Denmark, Saxony, Prussia, the Austrian States, France, Holland, the Cape of Good Hope, Italy, and Great Britain; and, secondly, he details the different methods of treatment, in order to support this precious race and to prevent its deterioration.

That country which might have been supposed to have been the last, in making trials on the Spanish breed, was the first to commence these important experiments. M. *Alstroemer*, in 1715, endeavoured to improve the Swedish breed; and in 1725, he brought a flock of *Mérinos* from Spain into Sweden, where he naturalized and propagated this breed of sheep, though it had been imagined that it could only be maintained to advantage in warm countries. He was seconded in his exertions by the Swedish government; who in 1739 established an institution, and offered premiums, for the express purpose of keeping up and propagating this new race. Such was the success with which these measures were attended, as it appears from authentic documents, that the value of fine wool of the country sold to the public magazines, and to the manufacturers of Sweden, from 1751 to 1790, amounted to 3,402,961 franks; that the government has expended, during that time, in premiums, &c. to encourage this kind of industry, 1,413,450 franks; and that the quantity of fine wool, the actual growth of Sweden, exceeded the quantity imported from Spain, for the same period, by 779,920 lbs.

In his visit to Sweden, the present author ascertained the fact that considerable care and attention were requisite to prevent the Spanish race from degenerating. He examined many flocks of this breed in Sweden, and uniformly found that they lost their beauty, and that their wool became shorter, less fine, and

and less soft to the touch, when they were in unskilful and inattentive hands; while the breed preserved all the primitive qualities of their wool, under intelligent and careful management. He remarked this fact also in Holland, and in several parts of Germany: but the circumstance of their degenerating, when neglected, ought not to discourage the agriculturist, since without proper care they are liable to deteriorate even in Spain.

The mixture of the *Mérinos* with the indigenous sheep of Sweden has injured the breed; while the difficulty of obtaining a sufficiency of food, in a country in which the severity of the weather obliges the farmer to keep his sheep in the stable for six or seven months together, throws great obstacles in the way of their multiplication. Nevertheless, as this species is more advantageous than any other, the number has been always increasing. In 1764, there were 65,369 of the pure breed, and 33,384 of the crossed breed; and at this time they amount, pure and crossed together, to about 100,000; which is $\frac{1}{25}$ of the whole number of sheep in the kingdom. The Spanish race, when habituated to the climate of Sweden, become larger and stronger than in their own country; and M. Lasteyrie mentions rams which have produced fleeces weighing 13 lbs.

Similar observations are made respecting the introduction of the *Mérinos* into Denmark, Saxony, &c. with the advantages which have resulted from their naturalization; and the author gives also a particular account of the result of the experiments made with this breed in France: from which we learn that the French agriculturists were so anxious to grow fine wool, that the departments of the Lower Alps, Aveyron, Cantal, Drôme, Eure, Gaud, Upper Garonne, Léman, Upper and Lower Loire, Lot and Garonne, Mont Blanc, Moselle, Oise, Puy-de-Dôme, Rhône, Saone and Loire, Lower Seine and Marne, Tarn, and of the Mouths of the Rhône, solicited the government to procure sheep from Spain. This application of the French farmers has not been overlooked by their rulers: for the Directory, by a secret article in the treaty of Basle, claimed the privilege of drawing annually from Spain, for the space of five years, a thousand ewes and a hundred rams; though they at first neglected to avail themselves of it, till M. *Gilbert*, by a Memoir read at the Institute in the 6th year, awakened their attention to the subject. They then adopted this gentleman's ideas, and sent him into Spain to choose and purchase 5500 *Mérinos*: but, falling a sacrifice to chagrin and mortification, the object of his mission was imperfectly accomplished; he having purchased only 1000 sheep, which were sent to France after his death *.

* See an account of M. *Gilbert*, pp. 497, 498. of this *Appendix*.

Some time elapsed before this subject was resumed: but at last the Government was persuaded by the Society of Agriculture in the department of Seine, to take measures for obtaining from Spain the remaining 4500, which they were intitled to draw thence by the treaty of Basle; and a company was formed, and subscriptions made to defray the expence. These *Mérinos*, on leaving Spain, were to be conducted to different parts of the Republic; and, for the benefit of those cultivators who should be solicitous of obtaining any of this breed, they were to be sold by auction, and the place and time of sale announced in the public papers. The author informs us that, while his work was in the press, part of this number had been sold in the Departments, and that the remainder were expected to arrive at Paris.

It will be evident, from these facts, that the French cultivators are extremely desirous of improving their breed of fine-woolled sheep; and this account is concluded by a recommendation to the people to forward the growth of the raw material, by wearing only cloth made of wool produced by French sheep and of French manufacture. To strengthen this advice, the author quotes from the English papers an advertisement of the Lincoln ball, given to encourage the wool-trade, to which no lady was to be admitted unless she was dressed in stuffs of home-manufacture; and also Lord Somerville's "Address to the Board of Agriculture on the subject of Sheep *," in which his Lordship expressed his wish that his countrymen would enter into a resolution to banish the use of broadcloth, and casimeres, manufactured from wool of foreign growth.

In Holland, also, though its cold and marshy climate differs exceedingly from that of Spain, experience has proved that the *Mérinos* can be preserved healthy and vigorous, so as to produce fleeces of the best quality.

Even Italy, so long plunged in the lethargy of ignorance and fanaticism, seems to be rousing itself to useful exertion. 'There are now in Piedmont,' says this writer, 'many flocks of the pure and ameliorated breeds; and from some specimens of their wool sent to him, he pronounces very favourably of its beauty and fineness; recommending the actual establishment of a manufacture of fine cloth in the *arrondissement* [district] of Sacco, to stimulate the Piedmontese to a vigilant pursuit of this branch of rural economy.' Hence, and from every part of this work, we may judge of the zeal with which the French are urging the improvement of their agriculture and manufactures.

Great Britain was late in the introduction of the Spanish race; for which, various reasons are assigned. 'Prejudice

* See M. Rev. vol. xxxiv. N. S. p. 245.

in

in England, as in the rest of Europe (says the author), opposed the amelioration of the fine-woolled breeds. Her agriculturists were of opinion that the fineness of the wool depended on climate, soil, and pasture; and therefore they conjectured that the *Mérinos* would not succeed with them, or would give only fleeces of an inferior quality. Wool-staplers and clothiers were imbued with the same prejudices as the farmers, and adopted the same opinion, but were influenced by different motives. They were apprehensive that success in this point would diminish the benefits derived from foreign commerce.'—About twelve years since, however, a few of the Spanish sort were brought into this island; and compliments are paid by M. LASTEYRIE to those individuals who have led the way in recommending them to the attention of farmers. As no notice is taken of Dr. Parry's "Facts and Observations" * relative to this curious breed, we suppose that his ingenious work has not been circulated in France. The author observes that 'the Duke of Bedford, that spirited protector of Agriculture, Lord Somerville, President of the Board of Agriculture in London, the King of England, and some other cultivators, have procured *Mérinos*, and already these animals begin to propagate. It is delightful to see the head of an empire, and men distinguished by their influence, wealth, and knowlege, encouraging by all means in their power the most useful arts; and it is pleasant to behold a people raising a statue and striking medals in commemoration of services rendered to agriculture.'—The tributes paid by his countrymen to the Memory of Francis late Duke of Bedford, honourable both to the nation and to the illustrious individual who was the object of it, drew this remark from M. LASTEYRIE.

An extract follows, taken from Lord Somerville's work above mentioned, translated into French by M. *Pictet*; to shew the importance which is now attached in England to the introduction and propagation of the superfine-woolled race: but it is unnecessary for us to quote, at second hand, from works already before the British public, or to transcribe from a French table a list of the 14 different breeds of sheep most esteemed in England.

Having succeeded, as he hopes, in removing every prejudice against the fine-woolled Spanish sheep, and having demonstrated the fact that they are capable of being naturalized in the several countries of Europe, M. LASTEYRIE proceeds, in the second part of his work, to detail the several methods of treatment, pursued in different climates, in order to multiply

* See M. Rev. vol. xxxv. N. S. p. 234.

them, and preserve them from deterioration, and which have been sanctioned by the experience of the best farmers. For this purpose, we are required to attend to the practice of agriculturists in Sweden, Denmark, Saxony, the Austrian and Prussian states, in Holland, Italy, and particularly in France.

'In Sweden, (he remarks,) it is a prevalent custom to confine sheep in warm stables, where the air cannot freely circulate: but enlightened cultivators follow a different course. They have spacious *Bergeries*, or sheep-houses, from which they bring flocks twice a day into the open air, even in the most rigorous seasons; having found by experience that this practice contributes to preserve them in health. These *Bergeries* have windows, which are kept open during the day; and the doors of the entrances are composed of hurdles during the spring and the fine weather, through which the air freely passes. In the winter, the sheep are fed on hay, leaves of trees, barley and oat straw, pea-haulm, and the leaves and branches of hops. They give to each animal two pounds of hay, with the addition of some straw or leaves; and these are sometimes moistened with the residuum of the brandy distilleries. Occasionally, they are fed with oats and siftings of corn.

'The leaves collected for the nourishment of their cattle are those of the birch, willow, maple, alder, aspin, elm, oak, &c. They observe that leaves given in small quantities afforded a wholesome food for sheep; but that the carcase and the wool were both injured when they were administered in large quantities.'

Folding is rarely practised in Sweden, through fear of the lynx and the wolf; and the sheep are driven every night, even in fine weather, to the sheep-house.—'During the hot season, the flock is sheltered from the rays of the sun under trees, which grow in the meadows, or under the floors of their rural buildings, which are raised on blocks some feet above the ground; for it has been remarked that excessive heat is more injurious to these wool-bearing animals than excessive cold.'—'The best Swedish farmers regard salt as wholesome aliment for sheep, and give it to them both in wet and dry weather, often combining with it, wormwood, or other bitter plants; juniper berries, and even pitch, reduced to powder and mixed in the water, which is put into trunks of trees hollowed out for this purpose.'

Such is a specimen of the Swedish practice; to which we should willingly subjoin the details respecting the other countries, if our limits permitted.

The author introduces his account of the French management of the fine-wool-bearing race, with complaining that he had been refused, by the manager of the national agricultural institution at Rambouillet, those minutes which were necessary for his information; though, when travelling in foreign countries, he

he had never experienced similar reserve in the conductors of any public or private establishment. M. LASTEYRIE, however, was not discouraged: but, availing himself of the "Instructions respecting the means proper to be pursued, in order to insure the propagation of sheep of the Spanish breed, and to preserve their purity;" drawn up by that experienced agriculturist, M. *Gilbert*, (who was appointed to the superintendance of the flock at Rambouillet,) he has no fear of disappointing the expectations of his readers, especially as the rules there laid down are still observed. Though he was not assisted by the communications of the manager, he did not fail to make his own remarks while he remained at Rambouillet. He observed that the sheep improved in size in consequence of abundant food; that they were turned into the natural meadows, and into fields of clover and lucern after it was cut; and that in winter they were foddered with hay, rowen, lucern, clover, vetches, wheaten straw, oat-chaff, and some oats. 'It is to be wished,' he says, 'that they would substitute nourishing roots, such as potatoes and beet, for grain;' and he gives particulars relative to pasture, nourishment, drink, shelter, folding, coupling, weaning, cutting, shearing, and amputating the horns and tail.

The work concludes with an account of the method of marking the different sheep which compose the flock, in order to prevent confusion and to ascertain the pedigree of each individual; and a plate representing the ears of sheep, marked according to the mode here recommended, illustrates the system of notation.

ART. X. *Essais pour servir d'Introduction*, &c.; *i. e.* Essays introductory to a History of the French Revolution. By a Member of the Parliament of Paris. 8vo. pp. 208. Paris. 1802. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 5s. sewed.

SATIATED as we have been with works of this kind, yet we perused these essays with interest; because they relate several particulars respecting the old government, as well as the revolution, which are not generally known. The former *regime* is here analyzed: its several parts, namely, its constitutional base, its legal administration, its military force, the order of *noblesse*, the established religion, &c. &c. and the state of manners at the period of its dissolution, pass in review; the causes of its subversion are stated; then the origin and progress of the revolution; and the whole concludes with dispassionate hints on the conduct to be pursued by wellwishers of their country.

The author says that he disapproved the revolution in all its stages, and he is, in course, the advocate of the former order of things: but he does not conceal the weak side of his cause, nor negative its defects, nor dissemble its deformities. He contends only that wisdom, and a regard to the public welfare, did not sanction the sentence which was passed on this system in a moment of general effervescence, but that the procedure was as ill judged and unjustifiable in itself, as it has proved calamitous in its consequences. This is the moderate line adopted by the present respectable *ci-devant* magistrate. Though a partisan, his pages are not loaded with invectives against individuals; he notes only those whose acts have consigned their names to universal and eternal execration; and he chiefly points his censures at measures. His reflections are those of a mind which has been mellowed by experience and extensive information; and his good temper and forbearing spirit will insure him the esteem of the reader whom he fails to convince.

His account of the rise of the parliaments, and of the steps by which they attained their ultimate form, is able, while his statement of their merits and demerits is impartial; and we believe that the claim to unsullied integrity, which he asserts on behalf of these superior courts, cannot be disputed. History, he says, represents these bodies as equally active in defending the legal authority of the crown, and in repelling its usurpations; they confined feodality within bounds, and were gradually bringing about the decay of that institution, which owed its origin to times of ignorance and anarchy: they enforced the respect due to religion, while they repressed the encroachments of the ecclesiastics; and they were the protectors of the people against the burthens which extravagant courts attempted to impose on them. The magistrates did not form so much a distinct order in the state, as a completely distinct class in society. They wore, even when not exercising their functions, a *costume* which bespoke the gravity of their station; and their manners were allowed to be, in general, pure and simple; though they were reproached with affecting disdainful hauteur, and a sullen superiority in their carriage and conversation, with which a consciousness of their birth, of their fortune, and of their power, inspired them.

In treating of the administration of justice under the old government, the author compares the antient mode with the trial by jury introduced by the Constituent Assembly; and he decides in favour of the former. Idolizing this institution, as we confess we do, yet we shall concede to this liberal magistrate, that we should not recommend its adoption to all nations

tions indiscriminately. Among a people without moral habits, without information, and little regarding public opinion, this institution would prove any thing but a benefit. Our ancestors are supposed to have shewn admirable caution in this respect; a caution at which the superficial may sneer, but which men of practical wisdom will admire; – they are supposed to have first introduced it, at least in its application to questions of real property, conjointly with the pre-existing mode of wager of battle. A farther concurrence is thought to be visible in the formula addressed to criminals, on putting them on their trial; which, it is imagined, originally ran thus; "How will you be tried? By God, or by your country?" that is, will you be tried by one of those modes of decision, (such as combat,) those various ordeals, which are considered as referring the matter to the judgment of God, or by a jury of your equals?

Among the objections which the foreign lawyer makes to the trial by jury, are—the *ex parte* view of the subject laid before the grand jury; its greater suitableness to a simple state of society than to the advanced one in which we live; its not being a written proceeding; its not admitting of an appeal; the fact of juries being less qualified than judges to sift intricate transactions, and to distinguish truth from falsehood; their being liable to be carried away by considerations *dehors* the law, and to yield to the feelings of the moment. Many of these objections lose their force when the modern practice of granting new trials, and the discretionary power of courts to change *venues*, are taken into consideration; and the arguments, which the author deduces from the fate that has befallen this institution in France, we do not consider as affecting the ground on which we have placed it. He labours under a great mistake, when he supposes that the praise given to the institution in this country is owing to its being contrasted with seignorial justice; and he ought to have known that seignorial justice was administered by means of a jury. This practice was not peculiar to our country, but the prevalent mode through Europe; an original privilege of all the gothic tribes, which they lost only in consequence of the usurpations of princes and grandees, in common with many other most important rights. Were not the *scabini*, in the courts of the lords in France, jurors?

The author relates an anecdote of Lord Mansfield, which we cannot credit. In a conversation at the house of the President *d'Ormesson*, at Paris, he is reported to have said that "the law of France, with the exception of three or four articles, appeared to him to have attained the highest possible degree of perfection, and that he should wish his own country *had the same law, forms,*

and tribunals, if wisdom had not recommended it to prefer an established order, though an imperfect one, to the dangers of innovation." We have not the least doubt that the sentiments of the venerable English Judge are here misrepresented; which might easily happen, without ascribing much blame to any party: he might understand and be understood imperfectly; or his complaisance might carry him beyond his impressions.

Respecting the state of manners previously to the revolution, the writer presents us with some passages which have more the graces of good composition than the attributes of just pictures; the descriptions of the courts of Louis XV. and of Marie Antoinette, and a thousand indisputable facts, do not perfectly harmonize with his representations.

Among the causes to which the revolution has been assigned, the author enumerates the economical reforms in the household of Louis XVI., the disregard of etiquette which was induced by the queen, the effects of the former civil wars of the league, the vengeance of the protestants, the writings of the philosophical sect, the progress of knowlege, and the alterations which it had occasioned in the ideas and sentiments of men. He examines each of these causes, and deems every one inadequate to produce the effect; and he ascribes the mighty desolation to the refusal of the Parliament of Paris to register the edict imposing the territorial and stamp taxes. Why, however, refer that which was the effect of *a combination of causes*, to any one in particular? Such an attempt from so sensible a writer excited our surprize.

The author declines the task of pointing out the means by which the potentates of Europe might have prevented the excesses of the revolution: but he will not allow that they made any attempts with this view. On the contrary, he charges them with having fomented the mischief, with abetting the proceedings of the revolutionists, and encouraging them in the lengths to which they went. He says that they severally promised themselves advantages from this policy; that England reckoned on seizing the commerce of France, on the conquest of her possessions in India, and on the ruin of her American colonies; that she hoped to secure ports in the Mediterranean, and to participate in the pleasure of vengeance: that Austria expected to recover Alsace, Lorraine, and French Flanders: that Holland calculated on adding some tons of gold to her stores; and that Russia and Prussia depended on being allowed to make a partition of Poland without molestation. He is at a loss to guess why Spain joined in this crooked policy; and why a prince of the house of Bourbon should, at the period of the revolution, choose to be represented at Paris by a minister who professed philosophical and free maxims. This phrensy extended,

extended, he says, to the court of Mysore: where festivals to commemorate the abolition of slavery, and the death of *Marat*, were celebrated in the presence of Tippoo, and he consented to be called *citizen Sultan!!*

The writer asks, Did the revolution produce any really great men? He then particularizes the most distinguished, weighs them in the balance, and shews that they are found wanting. He subjects to this trial *Mirabeau*, *Marat*, *Robespierre*, *d'Orléans*, and dismisses the claims of *Barnave*, *Brissot*, and *Danton*, with little ceremony. He seems to be aware of the indignation and contempt that have been so often excited by the adulatory addresses which have been made to the chief consul, and he advises that personage to prohibit the practice: yet he acts contrary to the regulations which he would have established, though with a moderation of which most of his countrymen have lost sight. He certainly exhibits a glowing picture of the exploits of *Benaparte*, and withholds those parts which might interrupt the harmony of the colouring.

Finally, the author recommends it to the existing government to be of no party, but to extend equal protection to all its subjects; and the latter he exhorts to acquiesce in the present system, and to support and defend it, whatever may be their opinions, on account of the inevitable ills which would arise from a contrary conduct. The example set by the high dignitaries of the church, he conceives, deserves to be followed.

ART. XI. *De la Richesse Commerciale*, &c.; *i. e.* On Commercial Wealth, or the Principles of Political Economy, applied to the Legislation of Commerce. By J.C.L. SIMONDE, Member of the Agricultural Society at Geneva, &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. Geneva, 1803. Dulau and Co. London.

IF abstract speculations on commerce, ample investigations of its principles, and numerous accumulations of facts which relate to it, were indications of its flourishing state, we might conclude that France, at the present moment, was the most commercial nation on the earth: but, when we examine these labours, even slightly, we shall find that the reverse is the case; we shall learn not only that the trade of that country was brought to the very lowest ebb by the storms of the revolution, but we shall be farther informed, to our surprise, that the consular government has not taken one effective step for reviving and cherishing it, and that all the late measures have been prejudicial to its interests. Ministers and publicists seem, indeed, to have shared in the passions of the multitude with respect to it, and to have been swayed by them in their proceedings

and communications.—We do not consider this subject as very inviting, especially in the hands of French authors; because their late productions of this kind abound too much in theory, in chimerical and impracticable plans, and in unfounded invectives against the English; forming, in general, complete exemplifications of that species of labour which they term *unproductive*, and about which they treat so diffusely. The volumes before us, however, belong to a different class, and are worthy of the pen of M. SIMONDE, to whose deserts we have recently paid our tribute *.

It being the intention of this enlightened and benevolent author to give advice to the French rulers, concerning the line of conduct which they ought to adopt with regard to commerce, he tells us that he was aware that its propriety could not be felt nor its expediency discerned, if he did not expose the false reasonings of the new adepts, refute the errors of the economists, and point out the injudicious and contradictory conduct of governments; if he did not lay down all the principles of political economy, manifest their connection, and fortify them with new proofs. He owns himself to be a professed disciple of Dr. Adam Smith, and to have adopted his principles without qualification; and it must be acknowleged that no writer appears to have imbibed and understood them more fully, to have commented on them more ably, or to have applied them more successfully. In several of his pages, he only details what Dr. Smith had before taught; while in others we meet with important points, largely and satisfactorily discussed, which our incomparable countryman had slightly treated, or passed altogether without notice:—we allude to the remarks on intrinsic and relative value; on the identity of the interests of the consumers, and of the public; and on the tendency of importations. On these heads, the readers of Dr. Smith will derive instruction from the present author; and the balance of trade, the accumulation of specie, and other subjects which came under the consideration of Dr. S., are no sufferers by passing through the hands of M. SIMONDE. Had some portions of these disquisitions, however, been less diffuse, had he been able to infuse into them more interest, and to have given them a more amusing turn, he would have been intitled to commendation on these points, which we cannot at present allow him.

To the *practical* part of the performance, or that which treats of the legislation of commerce, every praise which we have bestowed on the *theoretical* is due; and it is free from the charges to which the latter is in our opinion liable. It will be read

* Rev. vol. xxxvi. N. S. p. 483.

with

with pleasure and advantage by the commercial man, the statesman, and the scholar.

The science of government, M. Simonde observes, may be divided into two branches; the one embracing its political basis, the other including political economy, or its acts as directed to the advancement of the wealth, power, and revenues of a state. The discusson of the first branch, he says, is to be undertaken only among free subjects, and in free times; and he then adds that he shall decline the task. How far this is an intimation of his opinion respecting the government to which he is subject, and the days in which he lives, we shall leave the reader to form his own conjecture.

This publication, which is arranged in the form of chapters, is comprized under three leading subjects; namely, capital, price, and monopoly: the investigation of the first two forming the theoretical, while the latter comprehends the practical, and by far the most interesting and valuable part of the treatise. In the abstract discussions which occur, the author fully adopts the distinction laid down by Dr. Smith, between productive and unproductive labour; he even carries it farther, and rests his conclusions more fully on this position. Our limits will not permit us to state all the objections to which we deem this view of the question exposed: but we regret this omission the less, because we are certain that our controversy would be little more than a logomachy; being convinced that, when we came to define terms, our ideas and those of the author would be found to agree. We shall content ourselves with observing that the distinction, to which we refer, places in the same class, Beings not only the most discordant in outward form and shape, but such as possess properties the most opposite; the health and the plague of the social body; the principles of life, and the seeds of death. This is the case when the magistrate and the thief, when the teacher of religion or of science, and the seductress of innocence are huddled together in the same rank. If we withdraw from society the classes here termed unproductive, industry will languish, and soon sink to the lowest ebb; which must infallibly happen, when we annihilate all the principal incitements to it, and cut its very sinews at the root. We have been accustomed to regard this distinction as a mere defective arrangement: but the perusal of some of the present writer's pages convinces us that it is a substantial error, which may lead to false conclusions.

According to M. Simonde, a manufacture which requires protecting duties resembles husbandry which braves climate, and disregards soil. The formation of hardware and cotton manufactures in France, at the present period, he conceives to be

be as absurd and ill-judged an attempt, as would be the extensive cultivation of the vine in Great Britain. The exclusion of these British articles he considers as a tax amounting to fifteen per cent. on the above commodities, imposed on the French nation; and besides laying on this burden, it diverts capital from channels in which it would benefit the public, and at the same time yield more abundant and more certain profit to the individual. He fairly states the objections alleged against the commercial treaty between France and Great Britain, and completely refutes them. He asserts that the pretended balance was not so uneven as it has been asserted to be; that during its continuance in force, it was progressively approaching to an equilibrium; and that, in the year preceding the disturbance given to it by the revolution, the difference in favour of our country was trifling. Discussing the subject of free commerce as applicable to the case of Great Britain and France, he shews that, while it is the interest of the former, the share of benefit derived by the latter would be by far the largest. Experience, he says, teaches us most completely the ill effect of protecting duties. Geneva, and several other trafficking towns, since their incorporation with France, have had their trade subjected to these imposts: from which period it has been on the decline, and will be weighed down if the same system be continued. The inhabitants of these places are so far from regarding prohibitions as beneficial, that they have several times requested the government to restore things to their antient footing, and to allow to their commerce its former freedom; and if this liberty be withholden, we are told that many leading persons will quit the pale of the Great Nation, and fix their residence in those adjoining states in which the governments are less officiously kind.

On a late occasion, (see our last Appendix,) we took notice of the reasonings of M. *Blanc de Volx* in favour of a trading company with exclusive privileges. M. SIMONDE examines this hypothesis, and ably exposes its fallacy. He tells us that the number of companies which have been successively endued with exclusive rights in France has been considerable, and that all, or nearly all, became bankrupt. Having enumerated them, he observes that so many instances of failure should make us regard with disgust the creation of privileges, always burthensome to those who are subject to them, and seldom advantageous to those in whose favour they are established. In opposition to *de Volx*, he advises the government to suffer the trade with India to remain as unshackled and open as possible.

In favour of free commerce, besides adducing the decline of trade in the newly incorporated towns in which prohibitions have been

been recently introduced, M. SIMONDE instances the case of Switzerland; where no monopoly, no restraint of any kind on commerce, was ever known. He shews that the traffic of those states was in a most flourishing condition previously to their political disasters. He informs us that he has lately passed through that country more than once; and we were glad to meet with so favourable an account of the situation of that unfortunate region, from so impartial a pen. Switzerland, he says, cruelly laid waste by a war as unjust as it was destructive, rises out of the midst of her calamities with an energy which no one expected from her. In the whole canton of Schwitz, the theatre of the retreat of the Russians, no ruins are to be seen: Stantz and Stantzstadt, so barbarously burnt down, are more than half rebuilt: the canton of Ury, where a general (but accidental) conflagration aggravated the misfortunes of war, is actively repairing its losses; while those of Berne, Lucerne, Fribourg, and even the Vallais, are ready to forget the evils which they have suffered, provided that they are not renewed. In fact, Switzerland is still rich; and the prodigious capital, which human industry had there accumulated, every where closes the wounds inflicted on her. This, says the author, is a great example in favour of free commerce, and against excluding from a country the fruits of foreign industry: though it is true, he observes, that it was not to free commerce, but to civil liberty, that Switzerland owed the basis of its long prosperity. Certainly, among the numerous benefits enjoyed under that government, we ought not to reckon as the least, the emancipation of industry from the shackles and restraints imposed on it by the narrow views of other governments. May the Swiss people again find the happiness which they so well deserve! and may we, says this respectable writer, learn of them to estimate the value of every species of liberty!

To conclude: we may remark that, instead of offering ridiculous and falsome adulation to the first magistrate; instead of fanning the vanity of a people, already too much subject to that infirmity; instead of favouring mischievous views of conquest, and extent of empire; instead of exciting jealousy against the prosperity of neighbours; and instead of recommending political nostrums to work effects not within the course of nature; M. SIMONDE traces the obvious course by which a great state may repair its dilapidated fortunes, gradually recall its ancient splendour, and ultimately realize those inestimable and flattering advantages, which belong to the situation of a well administered and prosperous first power. We fear, however, that his sage and benevolent counsels will receive but a small portion of that attention to which they are so fully intitled.

ART.

ART. XII. AUGUSTINI PYRAMI DECANDOLLE, *Astragalogia; nempe Astragali, Biserrulæ, et Oxytropidis, necnon Phacæ, Colutææ, et Lessertiæ Historia, Iconibus illustrata.* Folio. pp. 269. 1802. Imported by De Boffe, London. 8l. in Folio. 4l. in Quarto.

OF the 191 species included in this truly splendid work, 171 were described from plants in their natural state, and the remaining 20 mostly from dried specimens. Of the whole number, 50, which were either unknown, or which had not exercised the skill of the draftsman, have been designed by the celebrated *Redouté*, and engraved by eminent artists.

To Messrs. *Desfontaines*, *Lamarck*, *Jussieu*, *Delessert*, and other distinguished botanists, M. DECANDOLLE warmly acknowleges his obligation, for the various facilities and accommodations which they afforded to the prosecution of his laborious undertaking: an attempt which his modesty would have induced him to relinquish, had he been seasonably apprized that Professor *Pallas* was busied in the same career. Fortunately for the public, however, the whole of the MSS. and several of the drawings had been already honoured with the flattering approbation of the National Institute, and it was too late to recede. The subject, though apparently limited, is not yet exhausted; and to such monographers as PALLAS and DECANDOLLE, we may truly say, *vitulâ tu dignus et hic.*

From an attentive study of *Astragalus*, the author was almost unavoidably drawn to the consideration of some of its kindred tribes. *Linné*, *Jussieu*, and *Gærtner* had assumed, as a basis of distinction, the introflexion of the lower suture of the legume in *Astragalus*, and of the upper in *Phaca*. In directing his attention to that family of leguminous plants, which is distinguished by the bilocular or two-celled seed-vessel, M. DECANDOLLE seized on another botanical character, namely, the *mucronate*, or *blunt keel*; the former uniformly associating with the introflexion of the superior suture, and the latter with that of the inferior. From the variety of structure, then, observeable in the legume, he adduces his six genera of *Biserrula*, *Astragalus*, *Oxytropis*, *Phaca*, *Colutea*, and *Lessertia*.

Biserrula is distinguished by its plain, many-seeded legume, with compressed valves, and as many waving teeth on the back as there are seeds in the pod. The only known species is *B. pelecinus*, Lin.

Astragalus includes a numerous family of plants, distinguished by an acute keel, and a legume divided into two perfect or imperfect compartments by a partition which has its origin in the inferior suture. M. DECANDOLLE describes 142 species, though he excludes *A. Alpinus*, Lin. and *A. Lusitanicus*

cus of *Lamarck*, as they belong to his *Phaca*. In like manner, he removes to *Oxytropis*, *A. Montanus*,—*Campestris*,—*Uralensis*,—*Verticillaris*, and—*Pilosus* Lin., the *Annularis* of *Forsk*, the *Fœtidus* and *Viscosus* of *Villars*, and the *Deflexus*, *Leptophyllus*, *Cœruleus*, *Ambiguus*, *Setosus*, *Grandiflorus*, *Candicans*, *Caudatus*, *Songaricus*, *Triphyllus*, *Microphyllus*, *Vesicarius*, *Ampullatus*, *Floribundus*, and *Dichopterus* of *Pallas*.

Under *Oxytropis* (ὀξυς, *acutus*, and τροπις, *carina*) are comprehended those species which are furnished with a mucronated keel, and a legume divided into two compartments by a partition originating in the upper suture. Of this number, are several which have been removed from *Astragalus*, several which *Pallas* had described under *Phaca*, and some not formerly published,—in all thirty-three species.

A blunt keel and one-celled legume discriminate *Phaca* from the last mentioned genus; as its beardless stile and headed stigma distinguish it from *Colutea*. *Phaca Bœtica*,—*Frigida*,—*Alpina*, and—*Australis*, Lin., *Phaca Salsula*, and—*Arenaria*, Pal., *Astragalus Alpinus*, Lin., and two non-descript sorts, constitute its species.

The characters of *Colutea* are restricted to the beard along one side of the stile, an inflated and often gaping legume, of one compartment, and a blunt keel, equalling or surpassing the length of the wings. Thus are the herbaceous sorts rejected, and the *Arborescens*, *Halepica*, *Cruenta*, and *Frutescens*, alone retained.

Colutea Herbacea, Lin., and—*Perennans*, Jacq., constitute the new genus, *Lessertia*, so named in honour of Mons. *Delessert*. Its characters are, a blunt keel, an arched and beardless stile, a headed stigma, and a membranaceous one-celled legume, of an irregularly oval shape.

Of the above generic distribution, it may safely be asserted, that it manifests much painful accuracy, and a very intimate acquaintance with the minute shades of difference which prevail among families of plants very nearly allied. We should not, however, forget that artificial arrangements are valuable so far only as they are commodious and useful; and M. Decandolle might have avoided some unnecessary complexity by disregarding the fruit, and selecting his generic characters from the parts of the flower alone.

The substance of the author's remarks of an anatomical, physiological, and economical description, may be comprized in a very few sentences. The microscope reveals a diversity of structure in the hairs which are observable on the leaves of some *Astragali*. The air inclosed in the swoln seed-vessels of *Astragalus Cicer*, *Sida Indica*, *Cardiospermum Halicacabum*, and

Asclepias Syriaca, differs very little from that of the atmosphere:—but, if the pod be kept immersed in water for 24 hours, the oxygen gas disappears, and nothing but the azotic is found inclosed. Thus, too, the bladders of *Fucus Vesiculosus* are filled with azote when first taken out of the water, and with atmospheric air when they have remained dry for some hours.—Gum adragant may be obtained from more than one species of *Astragalus*; an infusion of the leaves of the *Glycyphylloides* has been recommended in cases of calculus and ischuria; the root of the *Exscapus* has been substituted for mercury in syphilis; and the *Cicer* has been cultivated as excellent fodder.

It belongs not to us to extend and multiply such scanty hints: but it behoves us to observe that, if the science of Botany be limited to mere correctness of classification, it must remain barren of utility to mankind. "It is worthy of being remarked," says the philanthropic *St. Pierre*, "that there is not a single genus of vegetables which does not afford, in some one of its species, a substance capable of being converted into nourishment for the human race." The diadelphous class especially abounds in useful species; and the history of any of its genera must remain incomplete, when all the valuable properties which experiment, or authentic testimony, has ascertained to reside in the individuals, are not recorded.

For the rest, the present publication is intitled to the praise which will, doubtless, be ascribed to its author for his ingenuity, correctness, and perseverance. Of his preliminary pages, it may be proper to observe that 24 are devoted to an enumeration of the essential and natural characters of his genera and species. He then proceeds to discuss the history of the species, on the plan which is usually pursued by the most approved botanical writers; and of which an example will convey a more accurate idea than many comments:

'XXV. OXYTROPIS VERTICILLARIS.

'*O. acaulis, foliolis* 4—6*im verticillatis elliptico-acuminatis villoso-sericeis.*

'*Astragaloides hirsuta minor non ramosa, floribus purpurascentibus.* Amm. Ruth. p. 111. *n.* 149. *t.* 19. *f* 1. malè.

'*Baïcalia flore atro-rubente* Stell. Ire. 567.

'*Astragalus radicibus caulescentibus foliolis quaternis et quinis caulem radiatim cingentibus.* Gmel. Sib. 4 *p.* 6. *n* 81.

'*An astragalus verticillaris.* Lin Mant. 275 *.'

'* *Cùm Linnæus duas ex Ammanio diversas icones citasset pro A. suo verticillari, hanc speciem certò determinare nequeo. Easdem figuras pro Phacâ Sibiricâ citavit.*'

'*Radix*

' *Radix lignosa, cylindrica, parum ramosa. Caulis nullus.*

' *Folia è radice numerosa; stipulæ magnæ, petiolo adhærentes, villis longis hirsutæ, acutæ. Petiolus teres, hirsutus, 7—8 centim. longus. Foliola verticillata, 4—6 in quoque verticillo, sessilia, elliptico-acuminata, villoso-sericea, 10—12 mill. longa, 4—5 lata. Scapi radicales, erecti, folio longiores, hirsuti. Flores sessiles, capitati, demum spicati. Bracteæ lanceolato-lineares, villosæ, calyci æquales. Calyx cylindricus, villosus, quinquefidus; laciniis acutis, æqualibus. Corolla purpurea, calyce duplò longior. Vexillum oblongo-ovatum, obtusum, alas superans. Alæ stipitatæ, limbo oblongo hinc basi profundè auriculato. Carina basi vix bipes, apice intendiùs violacea, desinens in mucrone lineare, erecta, alas æquans. Ovarium ovatum, villosum. Stilus in medio incurvus. Stigma capitatum. Legumina erecta, ovata, acuminata, stilosa, compressa, parcè villosa, calyce supernè fisso duplò longiora, vix semibiloculuria; semina perpauca, rotundato-reniformia.* (*V. S.*)

' *Habitat in Siberiâ.*

' *Affinis oxytropidis lanatæ. Differt quod non sit caulescens, et quod foliola sint multò pauciora.*

' *Ab oxytropide microphylla Pall. differt foliolis majoribus, pauioribus, ex utraque parte villoso-sericeis.*'

We merely announce the following novelties as proofs of the author's successful industry; referring the curious reader to the work itself for more particular information:—*Phaca triflora, Oxytropis squammulosa, O. longirostra, O. brevirostra, O. glabra, Astragalus cracca, A. microcarpus, A. hispidulus, A. nanus, A. hirsutissimus, A. secundus, A. megalanthus, A. albicaulis, A. tuberculosus, A. macrocarpus, A. cephalanthus, A. pubiflorus, A. eriocarpus, A. brevicarinatus,* and *A. uniflorus.*

In every case in which the specific description has been taken from an inspection of the living plant, it is traced by the hand of a master; leaving scarcely any circumstance unnoticed, which the most scrupulous observer would wish to know.

A catalogue of doubtful species, and a copious index, are subjoined. The beauty of the paper, of the engravings, and of the junior *Didot*'s type, will gratify the taste of those who delight in splendid volumes. For the accommodation of those botanists, however, whose finances may happen to be in a *poetical* state, we should be glad to hear of a more humble impression.

ART. XIII. *Histoire Naturelle des Rainettes*, &c.; *i. e.* The Natural History of Tree-Frogs, Frogs, and Toads. Dedicated to *B.G.E.L. Lacépède*, by F. M. DAUDIN, Member of the Society of Natural History, and of the Philomatic Society of Paris. Embellished with 38 Plates, representing 54 Species, painted from Nature. 4to. pp. 108. Paris. 1802. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 1s. Boards. *

THIS volume commences with a summary, but very distinct statement of the characters which belong to the *Batracian* family of reptiles; or, in plain English, to the three genera of oviparous quadrupeds announced in the title. To this introduction are subjoined the following notices:

'Though the author has endeavoured to render his work complete, he cannot flatter himself that he has altogether succeeded; because several of the individuals from which he copied must have undergone some change in spirits of wine. He, therefore, invites foreign naturalists and travellers to paint or describe the animals in their living state, or, at least, before they are discoloured.

'All the Batracians, of which I gave abridged descriptions in the *Natural History of Reptiles, by Latreille*, will be marked in this new work by an asterisk, at the end of the Latin specific name. I should observe, however, that the descriptions, in their present form, include many additions, and some corrections.

'Of the drawings executed by *Barraband*, some were lent to M. *Desève*; who has merely reduced them, and published them, by mistake, *in his own name*, in the small edition of the Natural History of Reptiles, to which I contributed, along with my friend *Latreille*, for *Deterville* the bookseller.'

Each of the three genera is introduced by its distinctive marks; and its species, with their subordinate varieties, follow in order. The references prefixed to the specific articles are less multiplied and less circumstantial than we could desire: but 26 *hylæ*, 17 *ranæ*, and 31 *bufones* are duly exhibited, and described, for the most part, with laudable accuracy. The technical specific definitions are set down in Latin, and, usually, in the compass of one or two lines. To these succeed the details of physical appearance and habit, under the twofold title of *Caractère Physique* and *Caractère Habituel*.—Marginal notes, chiefly of a critical complexion, are sometimes added.

A short article will suffice for a specimen:

'XIV. MILK-COLOURED TREE-FROG. HYLA LACTEA.*

'*Hyla lactea, cum lineâ fuscescente à naribus usque ad oculos ductâ.*'

* The quarto edition, with coloured plates, sells at Paris for 50 livres, and the folio for 75.

'CARACT.

'CARACT. PHYS. Length, an inch and four lines. Head small, triangular, and not obtuse; skin smooth, and quite of the colour of cream, with a small light brownish line proceeding from the nostrils, along the sides of the head, to the eyes; thighs and abdomen granulated. Fore feet with four half-webbed toes, the hind ones with five webbed; viscous knobs, somewhat large.'

'CARACT. HAB. It exists in America. That of the Parisian museum is taken from the Dutch collection. Its body is very fat.

'*Note.* This new species is not to be confounded with *Linné's Rana boans*, which is the lacteous tree-frog of *Daubenton* and of *Lacépède*.'

We might quote passages of greater length: but a rigid scientific brevity constitutes a distinguishing feature of M. DAUDIN's performance, and recalls, by contrast, the more rhetorical and varied pages of the celebrated naturalist to whom he inscribes his volume. Indeed, the present author's merit seems to consist in the concentration of scattered materials already published, rather than in frequency of discovery or ingenuity of remark: though we meet occasionally with a new species, and with a singular felicity of extricating an established confusion of nomenclature. We are pleased also with the writer's simplicity and correctness of description: but he seldom makes us truly acquainted with the economy and disposition of the creatures which he undertakes to delineate. The work, however, is not destitue of useful and interesting observation.—Thus, under *Rana Paradoxa*, we find the following:

'This frog, which is frequently found in Surinam and various other parts of South America, presents a striking singularity of transformation, which misled MM. *Merian* and *Seba*. These two authors have asserted that the jacky passes from the frog state to that of tad-pole, and is then changed into a fish: but the facts which gave rise to this erroneous opinion are simply these: 1. Tad-poles of the jacky are found rather larger than the perfect animal, and furnished with only two hind legs. 2. Others are found of a size somewhat smaller, and with four legs. 3. These tad-poles have some resemblance to a species of American fish, from the peculiar form of their tail.'

These particulars are discussed more at large in the text, and are aptly illustrated by plates.

An opinion more generally received, but equally untrue with the former, is thus shortly exposed: 'It has been alleged that the pustules of toads are filled with a dangerous, nay mortal poison. This poison, however, is only acrid pus; by no means cleanly, I allow, but which at most may cause pimples, or a slight inflammation on the skin.'

In opposition to the assertions of respectable naturalists, M. Daudin assures us, from his own observation, that the common toad shuns water, and deposits its spawn in a deep hole, which it digs in the earth:—but this retreat is always in the neighbourhood of a subterraneous source.

Differences of aspect and habit, we apprehend, will completely justify the author's distinctions relative to *Rana pipiens*, —*ocellata*,—*grunniens*,—*clamata*, and—*halecina*; as well as his lines of separation between *Bufo vulgaris*,—*cinereus*,—*Roeselii*, and—*obstetricans*.—Of the cinereous, two varieties are quoted. 'A. Edge of the lips and extremity of the toes somewhat brownish. Inhabits the Jura mountains.'—'B. Has its dorsal warts and the glands behind the ears of a slight copper colour. I found it on a hill near Beauvais.'

For those professed naturalists who have taste and judgment to appreciate the present performance, we should be happy to select more copious extracts, did we not presume that they will have recourse to the book itself. From complaisance to our readers of a more general description, we are unwilling to add much to the liberal allowance of *Batracians* already served up to them in our reports of the works of Shaw and *Lacép. de.*

Art. XIV. *Essai sur l'Etude de la Minéralogie*, &c.; i. e. An Essay on the Study of Mineralogy, with particular Reference to the Soil of France, and especially to that of Belgium. By Rozin, Professor of Mineralogy, Botany, and Zoology, in the Central School of the Dyle, &c. &c. 12mo. pp. 332. Brussells and Paris. Imported by De Boffe. Price 4s. sewed.

Without the aid of M. Rozin's *avant-propos*, we should scarcely have conjectured that he meant to present us with a condensed view of his course of public lectures, delivered in the central school of Brussels. His title holds out no specific plan, his first pages exhibit no table of contents, and his text acknowleges no methodical pauses, vulgarly called parts, books, chapters, or sections. This affected contempt of visible and marked arrangement may give zest to a trim philosophic sermon, but must be regarded as a serious objection to an elementary treatise of any science, or of any portion of a science, of which classification forms a leading feature. A double index, of 36 pages, has its peculiar advantages: but it does not remove what we consider to be the principal defect in this manual. It is, however, intitled to no ordinary commendation; for it presents to the young student plain and comprehensive descriptions of most of the known mineral sub-

substances, without alluring him into the maze of theory; while it is calculated to convey useful local information to the more experienced observer. If it should not readily enable the mere beginner to designate with precision such fossil specimens as chance may throw in his way, the reason is to be sought rather in the nature of the subject than in any want of ability in the author. The principles of the mineral kingdom, when compared with the known species of plants and animals, are few indeed: but they exist not in nature in their simple state; and their combinations present a countless and perplexing variety of appearances, with such minute and almost imperceptible shadings, that external characters cannot always be safely assumed as a basis of distinct classification; while a knowlege of their component parts is, in many cases, to be acquired only by troublesome and delicate processes, and by modes of investigation not exempt from fallacy.

With respect to a notion which had long prevailed, that Belgium is destitute of mineral riches, it is properly observed that, independently of gold, silver, lead, and zinc ores, it contains porphyry equal to that of the antients, sand-stones of a peculiar conformation, and a blue marble, with white spots, excellently adapted to the purposes of building and sculpture. Various other important articles are pointed out in the course of the present volume: but, for the requisite information relative to the fossil shells, which are ranged in extensive beds in certain districts of the Low Countries, the learned professor refers to the curious details and plates in *Burtin's Oryctographie Belgique.*

We have been particularly pleased with the short but perspicuous explanation of *Lowitz*'s portable apparatus, and with the definitions of the ordinary tests and re-agents; which form a very suitable introduction to every system of mineralogy.

Aware of the prevailing influence of the Wernerian school in Germany and the north, M. Rozin has judiciously annexed, in the margin, the Linnéan names of the articles which he describes. Though he manifests a preference for the ingenious arrangement of *Haüy*, he candidly observes that 'they who are able to appreciate the labours of the celebrated *Werner* need not to be informed that *Gmelin*, who ranks among the first of our mineralogists, availed himself of all the discoveries of the former, and of his principal pupils; and that he differs from them only in the adoption of a more simple arrangement, namely, that of *Linné*.'—Hence the latter may be advantageously used as a key to synonymy by the partisans of different systems. For want of some such contrivance, till the late work of *Brochant* appeared, (which we mean shortly to notice,)

the system of *Werner* was misunderstood and misinterpreted by some of the most eminent French chemists.

It is now time to acquaint our readers, that this essayist begins with a comprehensive account of *mould*, or *vegetable soil*; then passes to the consideration of the calcareous and siliceous earths; to water, considered as a *combustible*, and even as *brittle*, when not *fused* by heat; and next to argil and sand, as having their origin in the decomposition of granitic mountains. Lava, basalt, and other volcanic productions, bring up the rear.

M. Rozin seldom loses sight of the geographical applications announced in his title page. It is to be wished that he had noted, with the same scrupulous attention, the writers who treat at large of the respective parts of his subject; and that he had more frequently alluded to the connection of the latter with the arts and the accommodations of life. In other respects, the information which he communicates is, generally, correct and important. At page 3, however, we were rather startled with something like an insinuation that vital progression may be traced in the formation, growth, and decay of mineral bodies.—From the author's account of *Phrenite*, we are led to infer that he has received no intimation of its existence in different parts of North Britain.—He is very unwilling to rank the *Diamond* among combustible bodies: but, after the experiments of *Rouelle*, *Darcet*, &c., it is vain to allege that we may resolve the supposed combustion into mere evaporation; for the burning ceases *in vacuo*.—*Ambergrease* is too slightly noticed as *amber* which has undergone some change; and we do not meet with the most distant allusion to the circumstances stated by *Swediaur* and other respectable naturalists, which *almost* prove it to be of animal origin, and, most probably, a morbid production of the spermaceti whale.—The conjectures, (p. 263.) relative to the state of the metals in the different planets, must proceed on the supposition that Mercury and Saturn are constructed like our globe, and that the degrees of temperature which they experience are regulated by their respective distances from the sun: but no missionaries have descended from these orbs, to inform us of such particulars.

The following notices of a recently discovered metal may, perhaps, gratify the curiosity of our readers:

'*Tantalium* is a new metallic substance, discovered by M. A.G. *Ekeberg*, of the Swedish Academy of Sciences. Its surface presents a slight metallic lustre, but its fracture, a dull blackish hue. It weighs 6½ times its bulk of water. It melts at the blow-pipe, with the addition of borate of soda, and imparts no particular tinge to the flux. It is insoluble in all the acids. Submitted, with caustic fixed alkali, to the action of heat, and then lixiviated, it partly dissolves in water,

water, and may be precipitated from the solution by means of an acid. Filtrated and dried, it assumes the form of a white powder, which is the oxide of *Tantalium;* and which, exposed to a strong heat in a crucible, without any addition but pounded charcoal, is again converted into a metallic button; or, in other words, into the *regulus of Tantalium.*

'The above is all that we yet know of this metal. M. *Ekeberg* has extracted it from an ore which he calls *Tantalite;* because composed of this metal and a mixture of iron and manganese, scattered in the form of irregular octaëdral garnets, of the size of a hazel-nut, in a matrix of milky flint (*silice laiteuse*), with micaceous spangles, in a mountain of the parish of Kimito, in Finland.

'It has been found in another place, combined with *Ytria,* or *Gadoline;* in which state, M. *E.* designs it *Ytrio-Tantalium.*'

M. ROZIN might have added that *Ytrio-tantalite* was long since known, and regarded by the German mineralogists as a crystallized ore of tin. Its characters are particularly noted in No. 70. of the *Journal des Mines.*

ART. XV. *La Medicine Clinique rendré plus precise,* &c.; *i. e.* Clinical Medicine rendered more precise and accurate by the Application of Analysis; or, A Collection of Observations on acute Diseases, with their Results, made at the Salpetriere. By Ph. PINEL, Chief Physician of that Hospital, and Professor in the School of Medicine at Paris. 8vo. pp. 432. Paris. 1802.

THE author of this publication is disposed to think that the science of medicine is capable of receiving as minute and accurate a classification as any branch of natural history; and he gives himself considerable credit for his successful exertions in bringing forwards an arrangement of diseases, founded on their more characteristic and permanent features, and confirmed by careful and numerous observations. 'We can ascertain,' says he, 'at what particular periods the different parts of natural history, such as botany, mineralogy, insectology, &c. began to form a regular body of doctrine, and to merit justly the name of sciences:—that a similar epoch has arrived in medicine, it was the object of my nosography to prove; and the intention of the present work is to demonstrate this fact, by examples peculiar to myself.'

After the decided opinion on the importance of his labours, which Mr. PINEL gives in this and many other parts of the present volume, we may perhaps, like another unfortunate dissentient, incur the imputation of possessing a degree of causticity and 'black misanthropy' (very foreign to the well-known meekness of our dispositions), if we venture to confess ourselves unable to discover all those traits of utility and excellence

in

in his system of nosology, of the existence which he has persuaded himself. When M. PINEL entered on the practice of his profession, it would appear, from his representations, that medicine was a perfect chaos, in which there were no guides, arrangement, nor order; and where there could exist no claim for its being considered as a liberal science. We are not, however, disposed with him to forget the labours of those great men who have preceded him in nosological investigation; and therefore we cannot forbear remarking that he might, without any material sacrifice to his own feelings, have availed himself, in the more early periods of his practice, of the classification of a *Sauvage* or a *Cullen* for the arrangement of his ideas.

We deem it unnecessary to enter fully into an examination of the propriety of this new system, and we shall only give the principal divisions of the synoptic table of acute diseases: observing on them that, in the author's endeavours to attain extraordinary accuracy and precision, he has paid too much attention to accessory and subordinate symptoms. Acute diseases he divides into two classes: *Primitive Fevers* and *Phlegmasiæ.* Primitive fevers comprize six orders; *Angiotenic, or inflammatory Fevers; Meningogastric, or bilious; Adenomeningeal, or mucous; Adynamic, or putrid; Alaxic, or malignant; Adenonervous, or pestilential.*—The phlegmasiæ are divided into five orders: they affect *mucous membranes; diaphanous membranes; glands, cellular membrane, and the viscera; muscles; and the skin.*—From these orders, the author forms his genera and species; and he employs a considerable part of the volume in the detail of cases designed to illustrate the various divisions of his system, with their numerous combinations.—The *Salpetriere* Hospital, the principal scene of his practice, affords very extensive and valuable opportunities for the observation of disease. It is appropriated to the reception of females alone, of whom it generally contains between 5 and 6000 of all ages. The general œconomy of this institution is represented as bad: but the manner in which the medical department is conducted does the author credit, and is well adapted both to his own improvement and the instruction of his pupils. The case of every patient is registered at length on admission into the Infirmary; and about thirty are made the subject of Clinical lectures.

Many useful practical observations are interspersed through this volume: but the treatment, in aiming at simplicity, becomes frequently inert. Decoctions or infusions of vegetables are liberally employed: but wine, opium, and bark, are much less used than in this country. Affusion of cold water in fever seems

seems to be unknown; and in many cases of inflammatory complaints, particularly of the breast and trachea, bleeding seems to have been omitted, when the greater number of English practitioners would have considered it as indicated.

ART. XVI. *Voyage à la Louisiane*, &c.; *i. e.* A Voyage to Louisiana, and Travels on the Continent of North America, performed between the Years 1794—1798; containing an Historical Picture of Louisiana, with Observations on its Climate, its rich Productions, and the Character of the Savages; also important Remarks on the Navigation, on the Principles of Administration and Legislation best adapted to this Colony, &c. By B*** D***. Ornamented with a fine Chart. 8vo. pp. 390. Paris. 1802. London, imported by De Boffe. Price 7s. sewed.

To introduce their works in masquerade to the public is certainly no evidence of good taste in authors, and we are sorry to observe frequent examples of a practice so deficient in correctness. The book before us contains no *relation* of either voyage or journey, whether or not any such was performed; and the only apology or explanation for the omission is contained in the declaration of the writer, that 'this work is not a compilation, but the result of notes which he took on the Continent itself; and if the extreme distrust of the Spaniards in 1795, and in the years which followed, has prevented him from completing his voyage, he has been so near to the objects [meaning, we suppose, those which he has described] that he may be said to have seen them all.'—*Quod vidimus oculis, quod auribus audivimus, testamur et annunciamus vobis*—is the motto chosen by the author.

M. B— D— (whoever he may be) remarks on the insufficiency of the former accounts of Louisiana, and declares his belief that the one which he offers is as complete a history of that country as it is possible to form at present: that circumstances gave him such advantages, that it is impossible to dispute what he says, without injustice; and that his chart possesses such accuracy as to merit the most entire confidence. This chart is on a scale of not quite $\frac{1}{76}$ of an inch to a degree; and the reader will often look in vain, if he expects to find in it the places which are mentioned in the volume. In comparing it with other maps of North America, the principal difference that we observe consists in the greater extent which this map gives to the province of Louisiana: not in marking the limits, for they are not designated, but in spreading the letters which compose the name.—The author adds that nothing which is really essential has been neglected to render the work

useful in every part; and this panegyric, which appears under the form and with the title of preface, concludes with a notice that all those, who have interest in becoming acquainted with these distant regions, will often have occasion for his book, and that they may rest assured that nothing in its contents has been 'hazarded.'

In the commencement of this *Tableau Historique*, the author has discovered, through the obscurity of the old English, Spanish, and French accounts, that 'no country has so much right as France over Canada and Louisiana:' which claim he founds on the voyage of *Jaques Cartier*. As he does not acquaint us with his reasons for setting aside the rights of the native inhabitants, it ought not to create wonder that the discoveries of the English and the Portuguese to the North, and of the Spaniards in the Gulf of Mexico, should be passed unnoticed: yet it would have been some satisfaction if he had explained on what system of geography the country, at present called Louisiana, is comprized within the discoveries of *Jaques Cartier*. Having satisfied *himself*, however, of the equity of this title, he enters into a short dissertation on the character of the Indians (*les Sauvages*), and on the dispositions which they have manifested towards the Europeans. He says:

'When the Savages discovered that prisoners sustained no ill-treatment from the French, and that the utmost gentleness was practised towards them, they were astonished at such humanity: but what surprised them still more was, that good faith (*loyauté*), that frankness, that exactness in adhering to their word, which distinguish our nation. From that moment, they conceived for us the highest esteem, and the greatest friendship. All those who were in the neighbourhood of the French sought their alliance, and succeeded in obtaining it.'

The turn of the English comes next:

'This nation,' he says, 'civilized indeed, but which a boundless ambition often renders more barbarous than the Savages themselves, instead of entering into an amiable agreement to make a reasonable division with us, has always allowed itself to be influenced by mercantile cupidity, and has never ceased to irritate the Indians against us. What has been the result? The Savages, whom nature, in some cases, sufficiently enlightens, have perceived the ambition of the English,—the shameful means which they employ, and the ferocity of their policy; and every time that a choice has been in their power, they have given the preference to the French, because in the French were discovered a thirst for glory, brave actions, and principles of generosity.'

Whatever may be thought of the justice of these accusations, perhaps there might be some difficulty in proving the title of the French to all the encomiums which the author has bestowed

stowed on them, for their conduct towards the native Americans.

After this essay on characters, we have a short review of the history of Louisiana, from the earliest establishment of the French in that province to the time of its being ceded to Spain. Following the example of some of his predecessors who have written or professed to write American Travels, the author has introduced orations, said to have been delivered by Chiefs of the Indians: but his narrative and his descriptions possess too much of strong colouring, often heightened by those apostrophising addresses which abound in the literature of France, more than in that of any other country. In this historical picture, nevertheless, much interest is excited by the account of the cession of Louisiana to Spain; which exhibits the unfortunate condition of the inhabitants of a colony suddenly discarded by the mother country, and, without their having been in any way consulted, transferred to the dominion of a foreign power.

The advantages which the possession of Louisiana would yield to France, by increasing her commerce and the number of her shipping, and by being to her a nursery for seamen, are duly pointed out; and the expence which the colony will occasion to the mother country, the author insists, has been greatly exaggerated in the former representations. Population, however, is wanted; for, without reckoning the natives and the negroes, he estimates the number of persons in Louisiana at not more than 30,000. To remedy this defect, several expedients and regulations are proposed. 'France,' he says, 'without missing them, might send every year a thousand families to Louisiana; and at the end of ten years, there would be enough to form an immense population. This measure would dispose of numbers of young beggars who are a dishonour to the nation, and who perpetuate the love of idleness. It is, however, necessary that those who are sent by the government should be healthy and young, and especially that the women be not 50 years of age.' In another place, he recommends that honest people only should be sent; and that those whose conduct should be found not to answer the political views of the colony should be turned away. The slave-trade is proposed as another means of assisting the population; and here some maxims are advanced, which, if admitted, would afford an easy solution to the long-contested question of the justice of that trade. 1st, No great nation can do without colonies. 2d, No slaves, no colonies. 3d, The slave-trade is so favourable to the Africans themselves, that policy accords with humanity in prescribing

its continuance. 4th, Liberty is a sort of food which does not agree with every stomach.

The accounts, as well as the descriptions in this work, which relate to the Indians, are of too general a nature to have the power of introducing a reader to their intimate acquaintance; an effect which has frequently been produced by travellers, in their relations of the most simple incidents. When the native Americans are mentioned, the author almost constantly applies to them the term *les Sauvages*. However truly this appellation may characterize them, the frequent use of it has not the most *civilized* appearance.

It is here related of the *Chactaws* (a people who dwell near the southern part of Louisiana), that jugglers or conjurors are their physicians: yet 'it must not be imagined that these physicians are entirely ignorant. They know perfectly how to cure the bite of the rattle-snake, and that of all other venomous animals. They succeed in healing gunshot wounds, and yet they use neither lint nor plaster: they reduce a certain root to powder, and blow it into the wounds; and with another powder, at the proper time, they make them heal and cicatrize. They have also a decoction of roots with which they bathe wounds that are gangrenous, and succeed in curing them.' These, surely, were secrets worth learning and communicating: but the author has not given any additional information concerning the roots, nor even the name by which the Indians called them; and he appears to have been unconscious of the omission.

We shall not farther extend the account of this performance; to which the late political discussions respecting Louisiana attracted more of our attention than has been rewarded. It is evident that the author's views are taken in accordance with the design of France to retain the possession of that country; and the late information of its cession to the Americans renders many of his remarks inapplicable. The reader will not be surprized to find that it contains less information than he might expect, when the author acknowleges that he is not a botanist; and that with the sciences in general, he has very little acquaintance. Without such qualifications, it was not very advisable to attempt to compose a statistical description of a large province, and to explain the interests of the mother country concerning its establishment.

ART.

ART. XVII. *Mémoires sur les Fièvres Pestilentielles & Insidieuses du Levant*, &c.; *i. e.* Memoirs on the Pestilential and Insidious Fevers of the Levant; with a Philosophical and Medical View of Lower Egypt. By PUGNET, Physician in the Army of Egypt. Dedicated to the First Consul. 8vo. pp. 266. Lyons and Paris. 1802. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 5 s.

THE first part of these memoirs is occupied by a general and interesting sketch of Lower Egypt; in which the author, after a survey of the physical state of the country, and the manners of the inhabitants, gives some curious information on the state of medical opinions and practice among them. He afterward enters into an examination of two important questions; first, whether the plague is endemic in Egypt; and secondly, whether it is possible to banish the disease from that country. Both these inquiries he answers in the affirmative. That the plague is endemic in Lower Egypt, he thinks, is proved by the uniform testimony of antient and modern writers; who continually represent it as being regularly visited by this scourge. He considers it as highly infectious, but as requiring a certain state of the air to favour its progress; and, though the seeds of the contagion remain inactive during the warmth of summer, he is of opinion that they are never altogether destroyed. In order to diminish its ravages, and finally to banish it, he recommends the constant use of quarantines and lazarettoes; and the employment of such measures for preventing the origin, or destroying the activity of contagion, as experience has demonstrated to be effectual. He does not seem to be acquainted with the use of mineral acid purgations for this purpose.

The three next memoirs give an account of the plague as it appeared in Syria, and at Damietta and Cairo. The last is on the subject of the Dem-el-monia, a disease which has been described by Prosper Alpinus, and which is very malignant and fatal. It is so called from two Arabic words signifying *water* and *blood*; it being meant from their combination to imply, that these two humours are principally altered in the disease.—The author is of opinion that the Dem-el-monia differs from the Typhomania of the Greeks; and he describes it as being chiefly characterized by a vomiting, pain of the head, and phrensy, which attack suddenly, and speedily put an end to existence. Bark in large doses is the remedy to which he principally trusts for a cure.

ART.

ART. XVIII. *Notice des Ouvrages*, &c.; *i. e.* Notice respecting the Works of M. *D'Anville*, to which is prefixed his Eulogy by M. *Dacier*. 8vo. pp. 120. Paris. 1802. London, De Boffe.

THE object of this *Notice* is to announce a complete edition of the works of this celebrated geographer, now preparing at Paris, and for which subscriptions are solicited. We highly approve the undertaking, and have no doubt of its obtaining ample encouragement. M. *D'Anville*'s fame is not confined to France. By his labours, the study of geography has been greatly facilitated; and he is one of many instances, which prove how much may be accomplished by the talents of an individual, when they are directed with uniformity and perseverance to a single object or pursuit. Though he was never more than forty leagues from Paris, he has given the site of places with so much precision, in the various maps and charts which he executed, that voyagers and travellers have often acknowleged with gratitude his singular accuracy. A consciousness of the distinguished service which he had rendered to his favourite science contributed to make him, as he advanced in life, vain and narrative: but his eulogist excuses this common defect of age, by observing that he united to the qualities which tended to form a great geographer, all the virtues of an estimable man.

As this eulogy is copied from the 45th volume of the Memoirs of the Academy of Inscriptions, and as no new particulars are exhibited of the life of *D'Anville*, we shall not quote details which are already before the public, especially as he died so recently as in January 1782, in the 85th year of his age. It is sufficient for us to add that, to the eulogy and the catalogue of his works, is prefixed an advertisement explanatory of the terms of the subscription. The proposed new and complete edition is intended to form six handsome quarto volumes, each containing 6 or 700 pages, accompanied with an Atlas comprizing 62 maps and charts. It will, in all probability, be extensively acceptable; and since we have strangely neglected in this country the cultivation of the science of geography, (though indeed we have a Major Rennell among us, whom the French justly compliment with the title of the *English D'Anville*,) and all our geographical books labour under the want of a good Atlas, we may be allowed to hope that this publication will be translated into English, and the maps and charts carefully copied.

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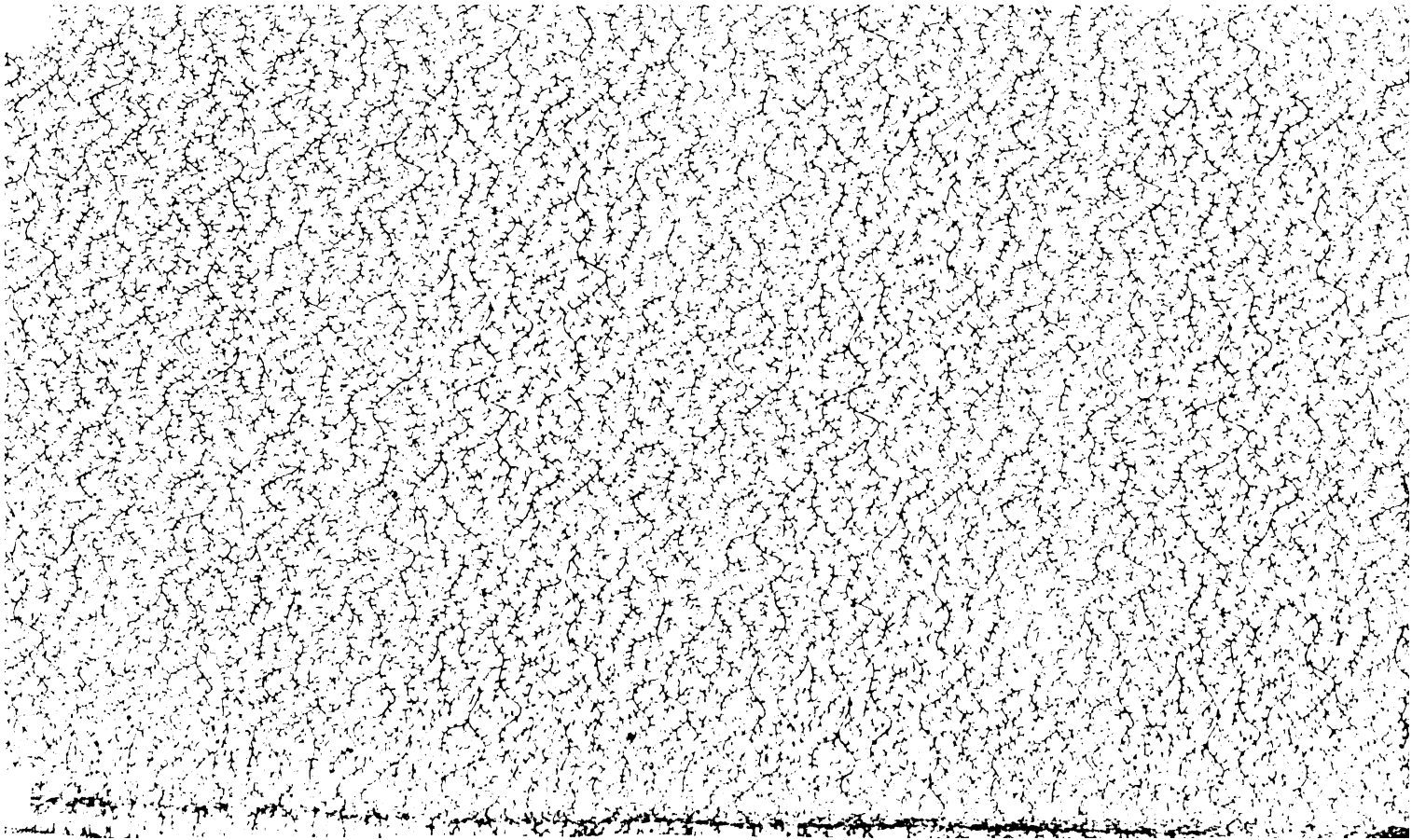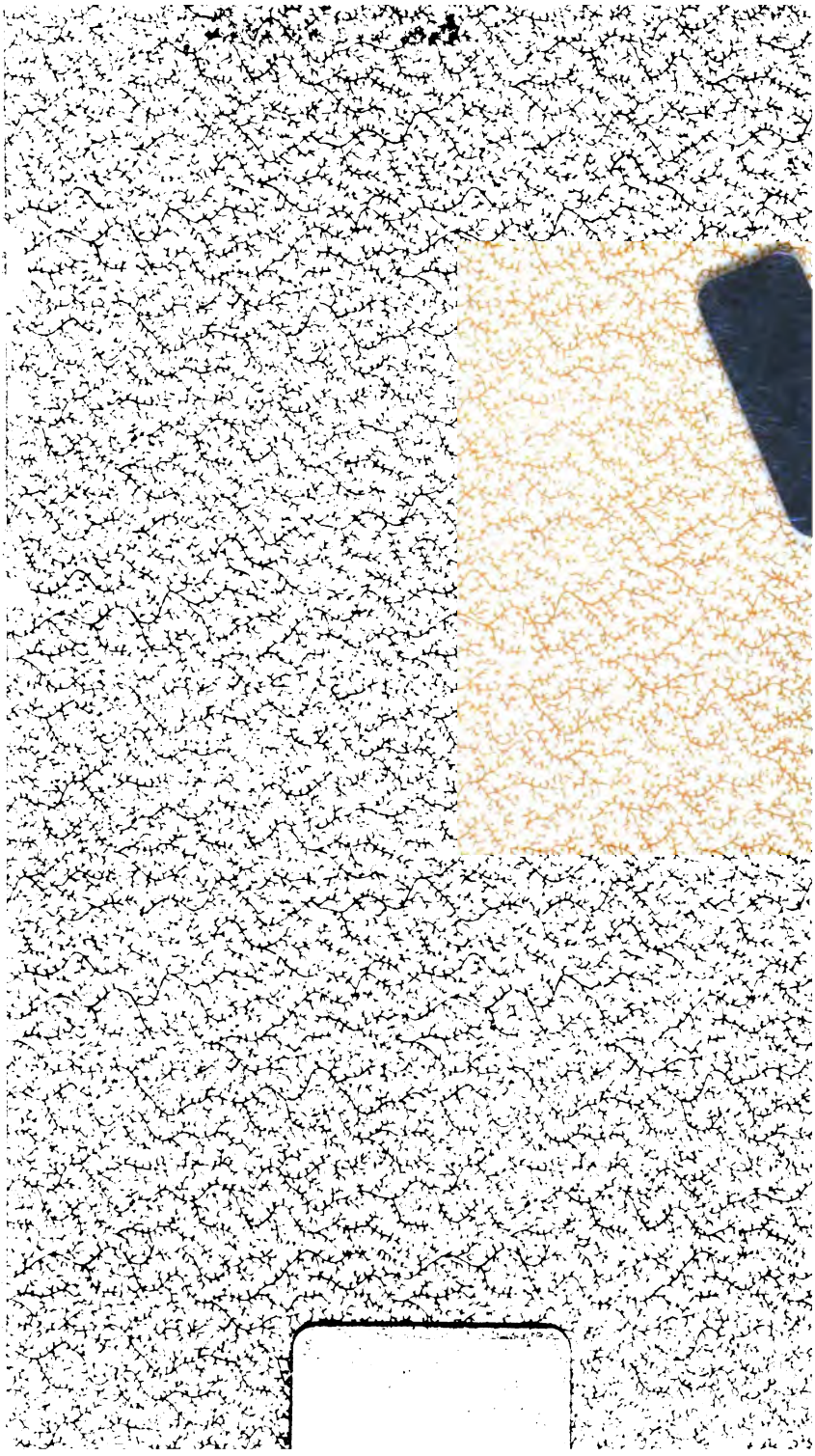
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